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ABSTRACT

Several articles are concerned entirely with explicating some of the core Adlerian principles which center, ultimately, on the purposiveness of all human behavior. Among the theoretical topics included are: (1) a conflict solving strategy; (2) the characteristics of the family constellation; and (3) the implications of misbehavior viewed as having a communicational purpose. Two sections of this compilation deal with the application of Adlerian principles in the classroom and in counseling situations. Three articles elaborate on the use of classroom discussions as effective means for children to gain insight into their goals as well as methods of achieving them. Story-telling and discussion in the classroom are also useful for developing a sense of sharing, generosity, patience and social interest free of the four goals of children's misbehavior. The section on counseling includes: (1) the Adlerian conceptual foundations of counseling; (2) a rationale for interviewing parents; and (3) an Adlerian elementary school counseling model. (TL)

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THE ADLERIAN APPROACH

SELECTED ARTICLES

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The Durability of Alfred Adler

Maurice Bullard

Alfred Adler, born in Vienna in 1870, had a combination of qualities seldom found in one man. He was shrewdly observant of human nature, articulate, definitive, courageous, energetic, and unselfish. His work had a life-long persistent continuity. He could convert psychological abstractions into specific principles and practices, often reinforced by humorous anecdotes.

Ashley Montagu, while speaking to a New York audience of psychiatrists and psychologists February 7, 1970, said of Adler's book, *Social Interest*, '... ...it took no more than a few pages to convince me that I had struck pure gold.'

Dr. Albert Ellis states, 'Alfred Adler, more than Freud himself, is probably the true father of modern psychotherapy.'

Dr. Gardner Murphy predicts, 'In the decade of the seventies there will be more and more recognition and application (of Adler's basic views) and less competitive and hostile environment.'

Dr. Abraham H. Maslow said, 'For me, Alfred Adler becomes more and more correct year by year.'

The durability of Alfred Adler's concepts is striking when compared with psychoanalysis, Dr. Rudolf Dreikurs and Dr. Kurt Adler have commented that no major tenet has been found incorrect or had to be abandoned. The splintering into so many approaches, many hardly recognizable in traditional psychoanalysis, is without parallel in science or philosophy.

The Nature of the Man

He was never self-seeking. Phyllis Bottome says, 'He spoke freely of his opinions; more rarely of his feelings; and never willingly of himself.' Common sense was a hall-mark of Alfred Adler. Bottome also said, 'In his early life he had a great love for Aristotle and founded his approach to life on common sense.'

Adler was a mature and experienced medical doctor in his thirties during the formulation of his percepts of Individual Psychology. His membership in the 'Freudian Circle' was from 1902 to 1911, during which he became a leading spokesman, editor of the *Psychoanalytic Journal*, and chairman of the Committee. As his views became less compatible and a form of censorship was proposed on the writings of the members, he withdrew taking nine members and leaving 14.

This act of courage necessitated starting all over again. He devoted his entire time to psychiatry and what was to become Individual Psychology. Lewis Way summarized the era in his statement, 'The early years of the century were his creative years when his principles were hammered into shape and his psychology fought for its independence against the psychology of Freud.'

One must not assume Adler had no shortcomings. He did not like to work at writing. His writings typically came from his lectures. When chided by his friends he would say, 'If the truth is there, bad writing won't hurt it.' Until Heinz and Rowena Ansbacher laboriously sorted all of Adler's works from 1900 to 1937, consolidating essential and related parts in one book, his works were no longer extensively read of studied.

Summary

This belated recognition and revival of the Adlerian movement is a supreme tribute to Alfred Adler. He forsook professional popularity to identify with and assist the comman man. This recently was well stated by the current head of the National Association for Mental Health, Mr. James E. Chapman: 'Perhaps Adler's major handicap was that he wrote (spoke) clearly and simply and was easily understood by the average educated layman.'

Adler, himself, said, 'I have taken 40 years to make my psychology simple. I might make it more simple by saying, "all neurosis is vanity" -- but this also might not be understood.'

ADLERIAN PRINCIPLES

Conflict Solving - An Address by Dr. Rudolph Dreikurs Nanaimo, B. C.
February 21, 1970

I would like to discuss with you today the all important topic of conflict solving which is the basis of all our work. The formulation which I will present to you today is not yet to be found in any one of my books for I developed these principles only recently. There is nothing new in the principle but this unification of the problem is a new contribution which may be very helpful, and which permits something which I always knew, but until last year could not prove: mainly the unity of all disturbing conflicts, whether between parents and children, husband and wife, labor and management, negro and white. They are all facing the same difficulty of not knowing how to solve power conflicts.

It was my great privilege last year to work with the government in Isreal to apply these principles to areas which I never would have dreamt I would apply: to all labor conflicts, to a conflict of immigration, to a conflict of city renewal. All of these things with which I never have dealt before were exposed to the same principles which I now present to you and showed their significance and effectiveness.

Conflicts are necessary wherever people live together for there are always differences of opinion, differences of interest. Conflict situations as such are not necessarily bad. On the contrary, we know today that all progress takes place in a dialectic process. The term means that wherever there is progress it is taking place on the basis of thesis and antithesis leading to a synthesis. When two people have different ideas, different intentions, then you have a dialectic situation. This difference of opinion and of interest does not have to lead to conflict and hostility. On the contrary when the difference of opinion leads to a synthesis it can enrich the possibility of progress.

We can demonstrate it in this way. If you have a country which has only one political party, there is no political progress possible. Political progress demands the opposing views of different parties which lead to new kinds of solutions to the problem. In other words, differences of opinion are necessary. All we have to learn is how to deal with them and *that we don't know*.

As a whole culture we don't know what to do and why? In an autocratic society which existed for about 8,000 years there was no question as to what to do with a conflict. There was an authority who had the power to decide the outcome of the conflict. The weaker one had to accept the solution and the terms of the stronger one. This was a solution for all conflicts throughout civilization, the stronger one won out, but not without the subtle rebellion of women against men, of youth against adults, the war between the generations and the war between the sexes. This is all throughout civilization where people rebelled against domination, but in a subtle way. Only until today when we are democratic does it conflict and we don't know how to solve our conflicts.

We have to recognize certain steps, certain requirements to solve conflicts, to resolve conflicts with amicable solutions. When I tell you these four funda-

mental steps, I am sure your reaction will be the same as in most of my audiencies. 'That is impossible; one can't do that!' I am convinced that these four steps which I recommend to you are most easy and can be applied by everyone without too much training, but with some good will, with some willingness to change your mind about things which you have believed in the past.

I will now present to you these four basic steps of solving conflicts in a democratic atmosphere where fighting and giving in no longer go. First, you cannot solve any problem except on the basis of *mutual respect*. I hear you thinking 'How can we have mutual respect when we are in conflict?' That is the first premise. The second you have to learn to *pinpoint the issue*. What we argue about is usually not the issue. In any field, education, labor, everywhere, that which is argued about is not the issue. The issue is always one of disturbed relationships. Three, you can solve problem conflicts only by *mutual agreement*. I again hear you thinking, 'How can one have mutual agreement when one is in conflict? Isn't a conflict exactly a mutual disagreement?' It is not. The fourth is that you cannot solve any conflict except by *mutual responsibility*, by participation in decision-making. No one elects any more anyone else to make decisions for one. These are the four points which we have to teach in all aspects of social living as a prerequisite to being able to solve the conflicts of our time.

It is the ignorance of most people about these four steps which leads to the increasing anarchy, increasing violence wherever democratic development takes place, where children get out of hand, women get out of hand, labor gets out of hand, negroes get out of hand. Regardless of how much you might fight with them and understand, they become a disturbing element and the opposite, the so-called establishment doesn't know what to do with them either. We have to learn to apply these principles. I can only say in my experience, we developed all our principles in the laboratory of the family council.

Plato and Aristotle actually realized that you cannot understand the nation unless you understand the family. The family sets the pattern for what goes on not only in the family but in society. All my experiences in establishing certain principles comes from the laboratory of family problems. We teach parents to apply these principles and create a peaceful atmosphere in the home, something which people don't believe is possible.

Now, may I proceed and explain these four steps. Democracy means equality. Equality means unwillingness to be dominated, unwillingness to give in. In the past, the authoritative powers could enforce submission. Today this power is gone. Therefore, we cannot solve any problem any more by denying us and our opponent the right to be respected. Why don't we respect each other? Because of this pessimism where adults, authorities still believe one has a chance to get conformity through power, through punishment. That is what happens in the family, in the community, in the school and everywhere else. When a conflict exists, one tries to punish, to subdue and if it doesn't go, one gives in. Nobody is obliged to fight with anybody. Certainly not with a member of the family or in the classroom, certainly not with children. We have to help people to realize that whenever you feel inclined to fight with a child you are last before you start. The child is a much better fighter. You can't gain anything by treating a child with disrespect. He will only treat you with disrespect. You will find in our families and our schools the same situation. People first

try to impose their will on the child. When it doesn't work, they become tired and give in, or they start off avoiding a fight and try to give in. The child then abuses them and gets even more violent.

When you fight with a child, you violate respect for the child. When you give in to the child, you violate respect for yourself. Most parents and teachers in a conflict situation don't know what else to do. I tried to write a formula which explains that whenever you deal with a child you have to combine kindness with firmness. Not love, love is not important for this. Love is very helpful but it doesn't prevent fighting. Respect prevents fighting. When you are kind you show respect for a child; when you are firm you win his respect. There are many people who are kind but not firm; many people are firm but not kind; many people are kind and firm, but never at the same time. This we have to learn: that even when a child does something wrong, you can oppose what he is doing, you can influence him, but if you treat a child with disrespect, he will become worse. It is always the same question: does a child first have to become better before you can respect him, or do you first have to show your respect before he can become better.

It is the first lesson we have to learn, neither to fight nor give in and we can only learn it when we realize there are better methods. The reason we stick to this method is that we don't know anything better. So we continue to do that which directs authority to the children, who more and more don't learn, don't behave, fight us, defeat us. This is of course, only true where we have democratic families and communities. Where we have autocratic families and autocratic communities there is no need for any of these ideas. You can still get along pretty well with punishment and power. But when the father lost his power over his wife, then both parents lost their power over the child. I am also amused when a mother says 'But you have to teach children to respect authorities.' I ask her 'Do you respect, as you are supposed to do, the authority of your husband?' Women do not have to respect the authority of their husbands, but children have to respect the authority of adults. It won't do. There was a time when Machiavelli told the prince, 'The masses are stupid. God gave you alone the intelligence to know what is good for the masses.' You know from history that very soon the masses showed the prince they could get along without him very well. The same is taking place between our adults and children. We think we have to take the authority because the children don't know what is good. In the process the children show us that they do think about what they want so they can say and do what they want. We have to get out of this warfare. We have to have truce, what Maria Montessori asked for; disarmament in education. As long as fighting continues improvement is impossible. There is no gimmick which can help one to influence children, one another or husband and wife. When fighting continues there is no solution possible. That is the first step one has to become aware of and accept.

The second one is poinpointing the issue. Whether it is the labor question of salaries, the question of the child who doesn't learn or any kind of disturbing behavior, this is not the issue. The issue is of a psychological nature. I spoke of the four goals of the disturbing child. If you know the goals of disturbing children you will not preach and punish because you know it doesn't change the goal. You have to work on the relationship. Every conflict is based on a faulty human relationship and in the process of improving the conflict most people make the relationship even worse. You have to realize the real issue.

I'll give you an example. A husband had a very heavy day and came home exhausted. He wanted peace, to listen to the radio, to read the newspaper. The wife came and said, 'I can't stand another minute in this house. I am tired and worn out with the children. I simply have to go out. Let's go to a movie.' As long as they are friendly there is no problem. She may say, 'All right, you have had a tough day today. I will either go by myself or with a girl friend, or go another time.' He may say, 'All right, I am very tired, but it won't kill me to go with you to the movie.' This is a solution. But when they have already reached the stage of fifty-fifty assumption, where each one feels he gets only 49 instead of 51, each is afraid he doesn't get his share. Then the fight begins. He feels imposed upon by her that he should go out, and she feels rejected for it means that he doesn't recognize how much she needs to go out. As a consequence they spend the whole night arguing whether they should have gone to the movie or not. Is the movie the problem? Their relationship! The disturbed relationship is found between husband and wife, parents and children and everyone else.

When I gave a workshop at the University of Oregon, a young man came up and said, 'Do you know the same is true for labor relationships?' He said, 'I am a member of the union. We had negotiations, and we found out that the company could afford to give a 7% raise in wages. We knew it and the company knew it, but we had to demand 10% in order to get 7%. The company had to offer 5% to settle at 7%. If we were stupid enough to ask for only 7%, we know we wouldn't get it.' Negotiations mean that one has to fight. It is our mistaken belief that one can't get anywhere without fighting.

We are training people to become sensitive to the underlying disturbances. The lady in our audience who said the children in our demonstration family behaved normally doesn't realize the nature of this behavior showing power. You have to understand what underlies it, not whether it is right or wrong but why is he doing it, the 'private logic.' We have to learn to understand what the quarrel is about. If you become sensitive and listen, particularly through group discussion, you can become aware of where the real issue lies. It's never the question if one should go to bed or not. The question is will I do what I want or will I have to do what you want, which is entirely different. That is the significance of the four goals. It leads us to the real issue, not why he steals, why he lies but what goals he has, how he uses what he is doing in relationship to society. That is pin-pointing the issue.

Now comes, perhaps, the most revolutionary part of my approach. It is revolutionary because it is in contrast to what people in sociology assume. We can solve a conflict only with mutual agreement. How is it possible? In order to achieve that one has to discover what our social scientists have failed to see. The ignorance of our professionals about the nature of problems is hard to believe. We speak about a breakdown in communications, never any breakdown in co-operation. Whatever you do with a person is based on mutual co-operation and mutual communication. Whatever you do with a person requires consensus, co-operation and communication.

You can't fight with anybody unless you first indicate to him that you want to fight, get his consent and co-operation in doing it. We communicate constantly to each other what we intend to do with each other. But, unfortunately the terms, communication and co-operation have been used only in the positive sense and not in the more important negative sense. To understand the issue, we need

to understand the significance of a dialog. A dialog is what happens between two actors on a stage. Now, if you read only the lines of one actor omitting those of the other, would it make sense? No. If you read the lines of the second and leave out those of the first, it wouldn't make sense either. It makes sense only when you read the lines of both and that is the tragedy. Ladies and gentlemen, I consider that which I am about to tell you now is of such a crucial nature that if you can understand what I mean and are willing to apply what I mean, it could change your life from today on. Everybody knows only the lines which his opponent speaks and they never make sense.

Why do children behave this way asks the teacher? Why does the teacher behave this way asks the children? Why does my husband pay no attention asks the woman? Why does she always critize me asks he? Everybody in any conflict situation immediately points out what the other is doing. There is nothing you can do about it. Anybody who wants to change the other will get cold feet, a bloody nose! If you want to have a gimmick to make him change, you will never find it. The only one you can change is yourself. But we are so imbued with our sense of weakness from our social scientists telling us that we are the victims of circumstances, the victims of heredity, the victims of the influences of our environment, the victims of our parents, the victims of our psycho-sexual development. Everybody looks for causes, causes, causes. Nobody realizes the tremendous power he has when he begins to decide what he can do. Our life does not depend on the circumstances in which we live but on our reaction to the circumstances. That is what Glasser tried to say in *Reality Therapy*. He always asked the question, 'What are you going to do about it?'

I will give you now an extreme example to show this. The worst experience a man could have was the concentration camp of Hitler. A friend of mine, the psychiatrist Victor Frankl, wrote a book about from the concentration camp to existential analysis. He showed how he found his own dignity in the horrible conditions of the concentration camp; how he saved the morale, the lives of himself and others, while realizing they can't kill your spirit. Nobody can be humiliated who doesn't feel humiliated.

I have seen many people coming from the concentration camps broken with no faith in mankind after their experience. I met one friend in New York who was a Patrician from Vienna, a rich corporation lawyer. I asked him, 'What are you doing?' and he said, 'I am too old to take the bar examination but that some of my friends ask me for a little legal information.' I said, 'My friend, isn't it horrible? You were a rich person in Vienna and here you have such a meager existence?' He looked at me in astonishment, 'But Rudolph,' he said, 'I was in a concentration camp.' I said, 'What does that mean?' 'Now I am free. I don't have to worry. I can enjoy life as a free man.' What did the concentration camp mean? What he did with it.

Do you know how to deal with a tyrant? It is as simple as pie, if you know what to do, which happens to be the opposite of what you do. What do you do when you are confronted with a tyrant, be the tyrant your husband, a child or anyone else? Most people do the same thing. First, they tell him how wrong he is. Then, finally they get worn out and give in. All you have to do is the opposite. When he tells you what to do, thank him and say you'll think it over. Then go ahead and do whatever you want. When he comes and says 'You can't do that' say, 'You're probably quite right; I shouldn't have done it.

You are right, I am a bad woman.' How can he argue with you. All you have to do is say, 'You are right.' Then use your freedom to do what you want.

I will now tell you one of the most dramatic examples I ever had. There is a book written by one of my students, *Critical Incidents in Psychotherapy*, where a number of difficult situations which psychotherapists had experienced were submitted to a number of so-called experts. He gave the following story which he could not understand. A woman had a horrible husband. He beat her up. She couldn't leave the house without his permission. He controlled her every movement until she could stand it no longer. So she left and went to a hotel. Sure enough, in a short while, the husband came storming in with a gun. 'You come home or I will shoot you.' She said that suddenly she was no longer afraid of him and said, 'If you want to shoot me go ahead.' What did he do? He shot himself. The psychologists couldn't understand why. In the moment when she no longer was afraid of him, he lost the power over her. If she had been jittery and said, 'Please don't,' he probably would have shot, not to kill her but just to hurt her enough to make sure she would not do it again. His power was gone when she was no longer afraid of him.

The power of any boss or tyrant is gone when you no longer are afraid of him. You are afraid because you don't know what to do with him. Then the remarkable thing happens which explains again the success of Glasser's *Reality Therapy*. When we begin to think what we can do, then the doors open. The doors are closed as long as we think what he should do. You can wait a long time before he will do anything. The only one you can change is yourself. That is something you have to experience to believe. When you begin to think what you can do, you suddenly become aware of strengths, power and inner resources, which you never dreamt you had, which at present you use only out of fear, fear of failure, fear of domination, fear of hurt, which gives you only pessimism. I can do nothing. Then you discover what you can do.

The discovery of the strengths of the individual occurs at the same time when another equally fundamental discovery is made. Until now we regarded the atom as the smallest insignificant particle. Suddenly, we find the tremendous power which lies within the little, ignored atom, nuclear energy. For thousands of years man was told of the smallness of time and space. Coming from dust and becoming dust, what am I? Suddenly, we become aware of the tremendous power which each individual has without knowing it. Regardless of how tough the situation is in which you may find yourself, there is always a better or worse way to respond. There might be no immediate solution possible but if you are willing in any given situation to use the best possible method now, then you have a chance to change the environment. Only when you begin to think what you can do, you will find all the methods which we recommend for parents and people in general.

Then comes the element of understanding, helping people to become aware, the element of encouragement. At the present time, we all believe in encouragement, but nobody knows how to do it. We only learn culturally how to discourage ourselves and others, finding faults. We can utilize the power of the situation of reality and let reality influence the child. We can use so many different methods to stimulate people: show interest, show friendliness to win them. All you do will be completely wasted if you think only what the other one should do. That is the discovery you will make.

Then you have to move to step four. You simply cannot make any decision for anyone else, not even for your child. You have to let the child and anybody else participate in decision-making. We see a wave of revolutions throughout the western world from one country to another, either with the negroes or the generation-gap or any other kind of conflict. The spread of conflict has been compared by many to the revolutions which went through Europe in 1848. At that time people were fighting for their political rights, for democracy. We have them today, the fight for love of democracy. Today the fight is for participation in decision-making. People don't know how to do it. The unrest in universities was because both parties tried to dictate to each other, the radicals to the president and the president to the radicals. And no one has the right to decide. All violations are that people decide and then try to impose their rights on others, their demands. They can only participate; they can't dictate. We have to create an atmosphere in our families, in our schools, in our communities, in labor relations, in relationship with negroes to bring about participation in responsibility, instead of each one thinking about what he wants and imposing it on others.

There is another tremendous deficiency in our culture. Democracy does not mean that everyone can do what he wants. Permissiveness is not democracy; it is anarchy. You can neither impose your will or let others impose, but in order to function every organization needs a head. Every social organization needs a leader. We have to train democratic leaders because people don't know what it is. Most people consider every leader as being an autocratic authority. We don't want leaders; everyone can do what he wants. We have to train leadership. I spoke yesterday about Kurt Lewin and how he trains leaders of Boys' Clubs, autocratic, democratic and laissez-faire leadership. We have to train democratic leaders who can unite, and that has to start at the level of the family in the family council where every member of the family ultimately is a leader, even the youngest child. The function of this leader is to see that tempers don't rise; that people don't argue, to start the discussion and develop it. We can train children in leadership from the age of six.

There was a school in Tel Aviv that not only had group discussion and group decision but, really, group parliament, group representatives. They didn't decide but sat together with management, with the principal and decided together. They elected a class secretary in each class from the first grade up. On what grounds was he elected? Not by a popularity contest. On one count alone, is he able to keep the class going when the teacher is absent; because that is the sign of a democratically led group that can function without authority. One tried it out and if it didn't work another child tried. They trained six and seven year old children how to be democratic leaders.

We train our parents and teachers. In my book for teachers, *Psychology in the classroom*, you have a comparison of the function of an autocratic leader and a democratic leader, so that every teacher can determine her own democratic index. Does he influence them by pressure from without, through punishment, through criticism or does he influence and stimulate through encouragement, through respect, by giving responsibility? We have to train parents and teachers to be democratic leaders. I am training now industrial leaders to be democratic. It is amazing the effect it has in settling strikes.

We have in every major university in the States departments of political science. I have taught in many universities, so I get together with the faculty

members. I usually ask the head of the department of social and political science, 'Have you every considered training political leaders?' They always answer that you can't train them. Some have it and some don't. Nonsense! If you can train a mother how to be a democratic leader, why can't you train a student of political science how to be one?

It is a sad fact in America that we have no democratic leaders who can intigrate the country like Churchill, Roosevelt and others did. We have none and we will not have any except occasionally a natural one, unless we make it part of the curriculum of every department of political science. The only ones who train leaders are the military forces who train them for fighting not democracy. We have to train leaders for democracy and you who are listening today will have to consider your responsibility to be a democratic leader in your family, in your school and in your community.

The Characteristics of the Family Constellation - By Floy C. Pepper, Teacher and Counsellor Portland Public Schools, Portland, Oregon

In this study we shall be concerned with the child's experiences in the family. His opportunities and barriers, challenges and expectations, ambitions and frustrations are strongly influenced by his position in the birth order of the family. An insight into these dynamic forces can aid the parents or adults in taking a more effective course of action.

Of greatest concern in this relationship is the impact of the family upon the personality of the child. These experiences in the family are the most important determinants for his frame of reference for perceiving, interpreting and evaluating his world outside the family. The knowledge, habits and skills which he acquires in the home largely determines his capacity for dealing with outside situations.

A basic assumption is made that personality and character traits are expression of movement within the family group. This is in contrast to the other assumptions which attribute the main development to heredity, psych-sexual development, general individual development principles, or strictly environmental stimulations. The concept of the Family constellation as a dynamic explanation, is the development not so much the result of factors which converge on the child but that of his own interpretation and related interaction. He influences the group and other members of the family so much as he is influenced by them, and in many cases, even more so. His own concepts force them to treat him the way he expects to be treated. Each child in his early relationships to other members of the family establishes his own approaches to others in his effort to gain a place in the group. All his strivings are directed towards a feeling of security, a feeling of belonging -- that the difficulties of life will be overcome and that he will emerge safely and victoriously.

Oregon states that 'he trains those qualities by which he hopes to achieve significance or even a degree of power and superiority in the family constellation.'

Human beings react differently to the same situation. No two children born into the same family grow up in the same situation. The family environment that surrounds each individual child is altered. The environments of the children within the same family may be different for several reasons.

1. With the birth of each child, the situation changes.
2. Parents may be more prosperous and own home.
3. Parents may have moved to another neighborhood.
4. Possibility of step-parent -- due to divorce or death.

Other possibilities or factors which may affect the child's place within the family group are: a sickly or crippled child, a child born just before or after the death of another, an only boy among all girls, and only girl among all boys, some obvious physical characteristic, an older person living in the home, or the favoritism of parents toward a child. Almost every discouragement in childhood springs from the feeling that someone else is preferred. Where boys are preferred to girls, inferiority feelings among girls are inevitable. Children are very sensitive and even a good child can take an entirely wrong direction in life through the suspicion that others are preferred.

Adler taught that in the life-pattern of every child there is the imprint of his position in the family with its definite characteristics. He pointed out that this is just upon one fact -- the child's place in the family constellation -- that much of his future attitude towards life depends.

The Only Child

The only child has a decidedly difficult start in life as he spends his entire childhood among persons who are more proficient. He may try to develop skills and areas that will gain approval of the adult world or he may solicit their sympathy by being shy, timid or helpless.

1. Usually is a pampered child -- and if a boy, has a mother complex.
2. If boy sometimes feels that his father is his rival.
3. Enjoys his position as the center of interest.
4. Usually is interested only in himself.
5. Sometimes has a feeling of insecurity due to the anxiety of his parents.
6. Usually are not taught to gain things by own effort; merely to want something is to have it.
7. If his requests are not granted, he may feel unfairly treated and free to refuse and co-operate.

The First Child

The first child has a threatened position in life; his being the oldest should entitle him to the favored spot and frequently does. However, he may become discouraged upon the birth of the second child, and refuse to accept responsibility.

1. Is an only child for a period of time and has, therefore, been the center of interest.
2. Has to be first -- in the sense of gaining and holding superiority over the next children.
3. Becomes a 'de-throned' child with the birth of the second child. (Some times feels unloved and neglected. He usually strives to keep or to regain his mother's attention by positive deeds; when this fails, he quite often switches to the useless side and may become obnoxious. If his mother fights back, the child may become a problem child.)
4. Could develop a good, competent behavior pattern or become extremely discouraged.
5. Sometimes strives to protect and help others in his struggle to keep the upper hand.
6. Sometimes death wishes or expressions of hate are directed toward the second child.
7. If the first child is a boy followed by a sister -- within a short time.
   a. Personal conflict may become a pattern of sexual discord.
   b. Girls develop faster than boys during one to seventeen and press closely on the heels of the first child.
   c. The boy usually tries to assert himself because of social preferences for boys and may take advantage of his masculine role.
   d. The girl may develop a feeling of inferiority and so pushes on.

The Second Child

The second child has somewhat of an uncomfortable position in life and usually takes a steam-engine attitude, trying to catch up with the child in front and feels as though he is under constant pressure.

1. Never has his parents undivided attention.
2. Always has in front of him another child who is more advanced.
3. Feels that the first child cannot be beaten which disputes his claim of equality.
4. Often acts as though he were in a race. Hyperactive and pushy.
5. If the first child is successful; the second is more likely to feel uncertain of self and his abilities.
6. Usually is the opposite of the first child. (If the first child is dependable and 'good' -- the second may become undependable and bad.)
7. Becomes a 'squeezed' child whenever a third child is born.

The Youngest Child

The youngest child has quite a peculiar place in the family constellation and may become a 'speeder' because he is out-distanced and may become the most successful or he may become discouraged and have inferior feelings.

1. Is often like an only child.
2. Usually has things done for him -- decisions made and responsibilities taken.
3. Usually is spoiled by the family.
4. Finds himself in an embarrassing position -- is usually the smallest, the weakest and above all not taken seriously.

5. May become the 'boss' in the family.
6. Either attempts to excel his brothers and sisters or evades the direct struggle for superiority.
7. May retain the baby role, and place others in his service.
8. Often allies with the first child as being different from the rest.

The Middle Child of Three

The middle child of three has an uncertain place in the family group -- and may feel neglected. He discovers that he has not the privileges of the youngest nor the rights of an older child.

1. May feel unloved and abused.
2. Becomes a 'squeezed child' whenever a third child is born.
3. May hold the conviction that people are unfair to him.
4. May be unable to find his place in the group.
5. May become extremely discouraged -- and more prone to become a 'problem child.'

Middle Children -- Large Family

Children who come in the middle of a family usually develop a more stable character, and the conflict between the children tends to be less fierce. In other words, the larger the family, usually the less conflict and strife among the children.

Generalizations

Every brother and sister has some pleasant feelings and some unpleasant feelings about each other. They are likely to have pleasant relations when they satisfy one another's needs. Since each child feels differently toward each brother and sister, the relationship of any two of them is very special. 'As each member strives for his own place within the group, the competing opponents watch each other; careful to see the ways and means by which the opponent succeeds or fails. Where one succeeds, the other gives up; where one shows weakness or deficiencies, the other steps in. In this way competition between two members of the family is always expressed through differences in character, temperment, interests and abilities. Conversely, the similarity of characteristics always indicates alliances. Sometimes, the two strongest competitors show no sign of open rivalry, but rather present a close-knit pair; nevertheless, their competitive striving is expressed in personality differences. One may be the leader, the active and powerful protector, while the other may lean and get support by weakness and fraility. There are cases where strong competition did not prevent a mutual agreement, but rather permitted each to feel secure in his personal method of compensatory striving.

If there is quite a number of years between the birth of children, each child will have some of the characteristics of an only child. Perhaps there will be two families -- one set of children, then a space of years, then another set. Whatever combination may first exist, with the spaces of years the situation changes and shifts, but basically the above characteristics remain the same.

The development of an only girl among boys or of an only boy among girls presents a ticklish problem. Both usually tend to go to extremes -- either in a feminine direction or masculine role. In most cases, both would be somewhat isolated and have mixed feelings and emotions. Whichever role seems to be the most advantageous will be the one adopted.

'Every difficulty of development is caused by rivalry and lack of co-operation in the family. If we look around at our social life and ask why rivalry and competition is its most obvious suspect -- indeed, not only at our social life but at our whole world -- then we must recognize that people everywhere are pursuing the goal of being conqueror, of overcoming and surpassing others. This goal is the result of training in early childhood, of the rivalries and competitive striving of children who have not felt themselves an equal part of their whole family.'

From the moment of birth the child acts, thinks and feels in response to his world in accordance with how he experiences or perceives it; and the way in which he experiences or perceives his world is to him -- reality. What actually happens to the individual is not as important as how he interprets the situation. With this in mind, we must remember that it is not the position in the family sequence that is the decisive factor, but rather the situation as the child interprets it.

The child's position in the family sequence show how a child uses his situation and the resulting impressions to create this style of life, his pattern of movement and his characteristic traits.

The Implication of the Four Goals of Misbehavior - Floy C. Pepper

Children want desperately to belong. If he feels accepted, the child maintains his courage, he presents few problems. He does what the situation requires and gets a sense of belonging through his usefulness and participation. But if he has become discouraged, his sense of belonging is restricted. His interest turns from participation in the group to a desperate attempt at getting personal status. All his attention is turned toward this end, he may get it though efforts on the useless side. There are four recognized 'mistaken goals' that such children pursue without being aware of it. It is essential to understand these mistaken goals if we attempt to redirect the child into a constructive approach to social living.

Every action of the child has a purpose. His basic aim is to belong and to find his place in the group or family. A well behaved and well adjusted child has found his way toward social acceptance by conforming to the requirements of the group and by making useful contributions such as, helping in the house and yard, washing the car and running errands. The child who misbehaves believes that his actions will bring him significance. He may direct himself toward getting attention, or he may attempt to demonstrate his power. He may seek revenge or display inadequacy in order to be exempted from any task. Stated more simply the four goals of misbehavior are:

1. AGM - Attention Getting Mechanism - to gain attention, to gain recognition, to get service to keep others busy.
2. Power Seeking - To prove his power to defeat adults.
3. Revenge Seeking - To get even or to hurt those who hurt him.
4. Assumed or Real Disability - To display deficiency or inadequacy in order to be left alone. He wants to avoid his deficiency from becoming obvious.

Regardless of which of these four goals he adopts, his misbehavior results from the conviction that this way of acting is the most effective way for him to function and to have a place for himself. The child decides for himself without being conscious of the direction of his behavior.

Attention Getting Mechanism

AGM is a technique of gaining the parent's and teacher's attention and service. It is the child's answer to his view of the parents obligations to keep busy with him. The child seizes every opportunity to make himself the center of attention in the eyes of his parents.

Most young children, until recently, operate from an attention-getting premise. They have few opportunities to find their place in the family through useful contributions. Most of the responsibilities for the functioning of the household and welfare of the family are taken over by the older siblings or adult family members. Many times the young child is prevented from gaining status through his own constructive contributions such as attempting to make his bed, trying to wash dishes, etc.. He therefore seeks proof of his worth and feelings of belonging through demonstrations of affection, being especially good, or through socially acceptable means.

> Shirley, age six, was an especially 'good' girl. She lavished affection upon her mother and her mother's friends and always did what was asked of her. Quite often she would clean the bathroom or straighten and dust the living room and would proudly bring her mother 'to come and see what I did.' She took such good care of her seven-year-old brother and was always picking up his things and straightening his room.

Parents need to find small, intimate and personal ways to show the child attention, and that he is important. Often a wink, a squeeze on the arm, a pat on the back, or an unexpected treat will suffice. The child may find means or mechanisms to get the desired attention if such methods are not employed.

> Jimmy, eighteen months old, was playing quietly and contently with his toys. A friend dropped by to see his mother. After a few minutes, Jimmy climbed up on the hearth, paraded back and forth, jabbering, talking loud and throwing his arms around. The friend stopped talking to the mother and talked to Jimmy. He immediately stopped. After a few more minutes of adult interaction, Jimmy again started his 'soap box oratory.'

The misbehavior and misdeeds as well as the acceptable behavior of a child are used to keep parents involved and concerned with him. When these methods

do not bring him the recognition he desires, when younger siblings steal the show, or when the adults expect him to give up childish behavior, he may then try any conceivable method to get what he wants or thereby gain some recognition. He may make a pest of himself, tattle, become untidy and other misbehaviors.

> Monica, age 7, was a petite, lovable little girl. She had learned to get her way by being 'cute' or by using tears. When confronted with a task that was difficult or not to her liking, she would elicit help from the adults or peers in her environment. If help or sympathy was not forthcoming, then Monica turned on 'the water power.'
>
> One evening John, 9, and Monica were to do the dinner dishes. John was busily engaged in washing the dishes and cleaning the table. Monica very slowly picked up the towel and said, 'I don't want to dry the dishes.' Not a word was said. Monica waited a minute or two then began to cry softly making sure that both John and mother were aware of her tears.

Monica is using 'dependency' as a demand for service. Her key words are 'I can't,' 'Help me,' and 'I don't know how.' With these phrases she gets fantastic service and special treatment. In the example above, Monica tries to get others to do the task for her or tries to get others to feel sorry for her.

Unpleasant by-products of humiliation, punishment or even physical pain do not matter as long as his main purpose is achieved. Children prefer being beaten to being ignored. The little girl who acts up when company comes or the little boy who bangs on the piano when his parents want to talk are asking to be noticed. Both children know they will be reprimanded. But even punishment is accepted as a form of getting attention. It is certainly preferable to being ignored.

Power Seeking

Power seeking means trying to overcome and control the opposition. Power seeking means defiance.

> Sam, age 10, refused to make his bed. He said it was too hard for him to do and, 'I'm not going to do it.' His mother said, 'Oh yes you are. Get busy right now.' Sam kicked at the bed and yanked the covers around and said, 'No, I won't.' His mother jerked him by the shoulder and said 'You heard what I said, now get to work.' Sam jerked away from his mother and ran out of the house.

Efforts by parents to 'control; the child may lead to a struggle for power. A power-driven child is always ambitious. His ambition is directed toward defeating the demands of those who try to supress him. A power-driven child may outwardly display high spirits, inflated self-esteem and even a sense of superiority but he is actually deeply discouraged. His refusal to 'knuckle under' is a front to save his pride. Trying to pull him down from his 'high horse' only increases his underlying sense of inferiority and futility. No final 'victory' of parents is possible.

In most instances the child will 'win out' as he is not restricted in his fighting methods by any sense of responsibility or moral obligations. He will argue,

cry, contradict, have temper tantrums, masturbate, lie, become stubborn, disobedient and a host of other misbehaviors in order to prove to you that he is the 'boss'; that he can do what he wants to do; that he is the stronger; that he doesn't have to do what you want him to do; that he has the right to be 'top dog.'

The need to demonstrate power may reach the point where the child decides to seek revenge and retaliation.

Revenge Seeking

Revenge seeking means trying to 'get even' and to punish others for a wrong or a hurt (which may be either real or imagined). The desire for power and for revenge can easily overlap. Dealing with a child bent on revenge constitutes one of the most serious problems for a parent since these children are unapproachable to reason. *Convinced* that they are hopelessly disliked, and have no place or chance within the social group. They respond with deep distrust to any efforts to convince them otherwise.

The revenge seeking child demonstrates that he feels unlovable, unacceptable and unwanted. His answer to these feelings are his actions toward others. He may wet the bed, bully the younger children and show a great deal of destructive behavior such as: destroying his toys, breaking mother's favorite vase, writing on the walls, messing up cosmetics, stuffing things in the toilet, B. M.'s in the middle of the floor, tearing and cutting up clothing, painting the face of the clocks, smearing nail polish on the toilet seats and other such acts.

> Harold, age 10, was examining the contents of his Aunt Josie's trunk. It was filled with such interesting things as Auntie had just returned from abroad. Harold was fascinated with all the cosmetics, the brightly colored silks and highly scented perfumes. Aunt Josie came into the room and berated Harold for spilling her powders and messing up her silks. She hit him on the head several times and called him a sneaky thief. The next day, Harold slipped into her closet and cut the buttons off all her dresses.

The increasing violence of the parent against the child's use of power intensifies the conflict and leads to the child's trying to get even and becomes revenge. *TO GET EVEN BECOMES THE ONLY WAY TO FEEL SIGNIFICANT.* The child becomes more vicious and counteracts parental resistance by stealing, self-abuse and assault, setting fires and committing even more destructive acts such as, breaking windows, denting the car with a hammer, or smashing the T. V.

Assumed Disability

An assumed or real disability is used by the child to protect himself against the demands of life. The child employs the cloak of inadequacy in order to be left alone. This behavior may characterize all actions of a child or it may only appear in situations to avoid activities where he feels deficient.

Many times a parent gives up easily when his first few attempts in trying a new technique ends in failure. So it is with children who are having difficulty socially and academically.

Children who are extremely discouraged, defeated and have assumed the role of being 'a blob' usually operate from three premises:

1. Over-ambition - can't do as well as he wants to do.
2. Competition - can't do as well as others.
3. Pressure - don't do as well as he ought to do.

Frustrated over-ambition is perhaps the most frequent cause for giving up. The desire to be superior and excellent may bring about the amount of despair where the child sees no chance to be as good as he wants to be. The feeling of personal superiority sooner or later gives way to cold feet. If he cannot be first; have the best grades; be mother's favorite child; be the leader of the group; be the homecoming queen; or the football hero; he will reach the point of giving up and will refuse to put forth any effort.

> Frank, age 7, was working on his writing assignment. His paper was not the best in the class, but was fairly neat and legible. However, he erased his work, redid it, and erased it again. It was not done well enough to suit him. Consequently, he never did finish his assignment. As a first grader, Frank 'gave up' and refused to put forth any effort.

The child, who assumes disability because of his over-ambition, will not participate in an activity which does not provide him with the opportunity to prove his superiority. For this reason, many parents find it difficult to accept a psychological interpretation of over-ambition in a child who does not try at all. Probably the only way to help such a child is by making him aware of how he defeats himself.

The competitive child is convinced that he has no chance to do as well as others. This child has always been impressed with the fact that he is not 'good enough as he is' and has always been pushed to do better. Parents in trying to motivate their child, constantly say defeating things as:

> 'Why can't you be as good as your sister?'
> 'Why don't you get higher marks, like Mary?'
> 'When I was your age, I was riding a two-wheeler.'
>
> Jennie, age 10, felt that she was 'no good' and was also 'stupid.' Her mother said to her, 'You can't learn, you are too stupid.' Jenny was convinced that she could not learn and therefore would not try. When a request was made of her she would reply, 'I can't, I'm too "dumb".'

Some children may respond by withdrawing as they are actually unable to keep up with others. The sense of being less than others and the conviction of not being good enough bears no relation to the childs ability.

The pressured child who is constantly criticized by parents finds that whatever he does isn't as good as the parents think it ought to be. 'Passing the course'

or making a 'B' is not enough for parents. Parents quite often say defeating and discouraging remarks as:

'You can do better than that.'
'You are not cleaning your room as often as you ought to.'
'You only had two home runs, you should have had more.'

Rich, age 8, was having problems in school. He could not accept making mistakes. He also did not like to participate in sports. His mother told him, 'Why can't you do as good in school as Steve. He always gets a 100 on his papers and you always miss 1 or 2. His father told him, 'You shouldn't have missed that ball, Steve wouldn't have missed it. I know you stopped two sizzlers, but you should have gotten that other one.'

Some parents also discourage at a non-verbal level. Their facial expressions, shoulder shrugs and disapproving looks are as defeating to the child as their verbal remarks.

Parents need to convey to the child that he is 'good enough' as he is. They need to remove the pressure by being less critical, less fault-finding and less picky. They need to give the child time to solve problems and to perform at his own speed. They need to allow time for the child to learn a skill so that he can improve his rate of performance.

Recognizing The Four Goals of Misbehavior

The child cries out through his behavior. Insight into how and why the child behaves as he does can only be attained by understanding the goals he pursues. The ability to recognize the Four Goals can help parents to equalize the inequities that arise in parent-child relationship.

As parents check their first reactions to the child's behavior, they are able to see the intentions of the child's behavior. It is the reaction the parents have at the time the behavior occurs that indicates to them the goal of the child. The child's goal may occasionally vary with circumstances: he may act to attract attention at one moment, and assert his power or seek revenge at another. He may also obtain his goal by different techniques; and conversely, the same behavior pattern may be used for different purposes. It's dynamics can be generally recognized by the effect it has on others, and by their reactions.

Goal 1 -- Attention
Feelings of annoyance may indicate that the child is seeking attention. If the child responds when spoken to and the action stops, usually the goal is attention. (Sort of resembles a fly, you swat at it and it goes away for a time, but eventually comes back and you swat it again.) However, if the action continues after reprimand it may be considered a symptom of a stronger goal.

Goal 2 -- Power
When parents feel challenged and feel inclined to prove to the child that they can make him do it, they may be sure that the child's goal is power. Usually a reprimand intensifies the behavior. During a power struggle, no inter-

relationship is too trivial to be used as an opportunity for challenge. Any pressure results in the child's fighting back and showing extreme aggressiveness. Adults who deal with this type of child feel personally challenged and tend to react with the feeling that they will show the child that they can control him.

Goal 3 -- Revenge
Parents feeling of hurt and resentment are indicative of the goal revenge. The child does things to hurt them. Children who use revenge need to be convinced that they can be liked.

Goal 4 -- Displaying Inadequacy
When parents feel like saying 'I don't know what to do with you,' it is usually indicative that the child has sought to impress the parent with his inability so that the child can give up functioning and responsibility. The child impresses the adult with his incapacities and, as a result, the parent characteristically throws up his hands in complete despair and permits the child to withdraw.

In the same way, response to correction discloses the child's motives. His response to the adult's efforts to control him reveal his goal. The child who wants attention stops his disturbance when he receives attention. When he is challenging authority, the parent's desire to have him control his actions only brings about stronger resistance. The child who seeks to get even, may become even more hostile and violent at the adult's attempts to stop his behavior. In other words, the child's reaction to corrective efforts provides clues about the purpose of his behavior.

CLASSROOM DISCUSSIONS

The Application of Adlerian Principles in a Classroom - Bernice Grunwald

I teach socially and emotionally maladjusted children from the ages of nine to twelve years in a special class. These children are referred to my class after they have been examined by our school physician and studied by the school psychologist. Except for the ability to write their first names, few of these children have any academic skills. Almost all of them dislike school.

As one can well imagine, the first few days of the school year are very rugged for the teacher who takes over a class of such children, especially when the class consists of more than twenty students. The teacher is confronted with a group of 'Children with Problems' who have already formed definite concepts of, and attitudes to society and have also formed their own ways of meeting these difficulties. Having been successful in reaching their goals through their already developed techniques, they try to use the same methods in this new class. It takes considerable time before the teacher can find her way to these children, gain their confidence, and thus bring about the security which such friendship achieves. They test this adult who does not resort to authority, by all sorts of provocations.

The first day of school is very important for it initiates the basis of our future relationship. It is important that the teacher create an atmosphere which avoids associations with previous experiences in the classroom, namely, that of 'Failure.' In this class the child must feel that he is a respected and wanted member of the group. Here he must find a place not because of his ability to perform scholastically but because he is himself. However, it is important to help the child understand from the very beginning that he cannot operate successfully in the class if he operates upon wrong premises. The question is how to achieve this aim.

Potentially normal children who have difficulties in school have difficulties with life in general. Their inabilities to adjust to school are often the direct results of their inabilities to solve their life problems, and are not, as so many parents believe, the cause of home problems. There are, of course, cases where unhappy experiences during the first year in school may cause problems that did not exist before. However, generally these children are able to make the proper readjustment after a short time. For the reason that both the difficulties at school and those at home are really manifestations of the same problem, it is necessary for the teacher who works with maladjusted children to work at both ends simultaneously. As soon as the home relationship improves, the school problems improve also.

The First Day of School

At the very beginning of the semester, I must get my 'Foot in the Door.' In order to achieve this, I begin 'Plotting' long before I have my first encounter with the class. I study each child's record. This rarely gives me an adequate picture of the child's problems, but he is not an entire stranger to me when we

meet. Anecdotal reports by previous teachers are especially helpful. Greeting a new child with, 'Did you have fun at your Grandmother's farm this summer?' or 'Have you been able to find your dog?' helps establish contact.

On the first day, the children may move around freely doing whatever they wish as long as it does not disturb the other children in the class. The teacher exercises a minimum of intervention. After several hours of free activities, I approach the class with the problem that concerns all of us, namely, what we intend to do during the school year. In a casual way, I mention that I know they had some difficulties in school up to now and that they are probably frightened of reading and so on. But I state that I have known many other children with similar problems who worked them out successfully and are now doing well in school. I assure them that together we can find ways to overcome many of their school difficulties. In this way, the children are put at ease and are not worried about 'Discoveries' about them that I may make.

Sometimes a child offers to tell about his difficulties. Once the first one begins, others follow, for most children enjoy talking about themselves. To be a good listener is a great asset to any teacher. Many conscientious teachers will cut the child short because they are pressed for time, and will insist that he come to the point. I listen attentively, not only to what he is saying but how he is telling the story. In this way, I get to know the degree of social feeling, the purpose behind his behavior, and the means he uses to attain his goals. This requires careful, attentive and continuous observation of the child.

The first directed discussion with the group refers to the planning of the school activities. This often results in skeptical and provocative remarks, especially by the older and more cynical children. Such remarks are met with statements such as these: 'All of us together will make a decision.' To a very agressive child I might say, 'Now that we have listened to your opinions, let us find out what the others think.' Such remarks will pacify such children usually for a little while. Generally, there is no difficulty in getting the program rolling after a few days. In the beginning, the activities consist mainly of the kind which children can indulge in without fear of competition or failure.

At the end of the first week, we take inventory of what we have achieved; how things are going in general, where we might have planned poorly and how we can improve. At this time, I suggest that we have a student council and I explain how it functions. This suggestion is received with great enthusiasm. The student council has always worked out very successfully, but only after what are usually some trying weeks. There is considerable confusion at first which may discourage teachers who do not have sufficient confidence in children. It is always amazing how well young children can handle their own affairs with proper encouragement and guidance.

The student council consists of three to four members of the class plus a chairman elected by the group for a limited time. The function of the student council is to plan activities, to take up grievances, to consider suggestions, to conduct discussions, to summarize the developments of the week, and to evaluate class progress. The opinion of the council, which meets every afternoon in front of the entire class, carried considerably more weight than the opinion of the teacher. If the council discusses the disturbance that John creates

by tapping on the desk and distracting the others, this problem is invariably solved more satisfactorily than if the teacher had reprimanded John.

It takes time before the children are trained sufficiently to conduct their discussions in an orderly and democratic manner. As the child learns to accept the values of the group, his concepts of himself and that of his relationship to others change. Thus begins a solution to some of his emotional problems.

During the first part of the year, I participate actively. Although I rarely give any direct interpretation, where the discussion strays I do try to lead the group back by injecting questions in very much the same manner as we do in our child guidance centers, questions such as: 'Could it be that Mary felt left out and therefore...?' or 'Aren't we getting away from the subject?' In time, the children learn some of the reasons for their behavior, the nature of their goals, and why they pursue them in the particular manner that they do.

The teacher participates as a member of the class. Of course, she influences the children's thinking so that they can come to their own understandings. For example: Sally caught on quickly when I suggested that 'Perhaps Sally cries in order to get sympathy from others. She wants sympathy so others will do her work for her.' *Explanations are always short and simple.*

Together with council meetings there are, of course, personal conferences between the teacher and the individual pupils. For some children these conferences are of even greater importance than the council meetings. Many withdrawn children who are unable to participate in group discussions become able to do so in time, after having had the personal discussions.

Every child behaves purposefully. His purposes may or may not be known to him, and when they become evident to us, they may seem either illogical or just stupid. But insight into these purposes serves as a guide to understanding the child. Consequently, it is of the greatest importance to learn each child's concept of himself and the techniques he uses to attain his goals. A classroom provides many opportunities for observation of goals and methods. However, the teacher should operate with great caution in giving interpretation. I try to present them as tentative hypothesis, stating, 'Could it be that you do such and such in this manner because of such and such reasons?'

The Goals of Children

Each child has its unique goals and basic patterns of behavior. Dr. Rudolf Dreikurs in his book, *The Challenge of Parenthood*,[3] has identified four main goals of children which are also, but less systematically, stated by Dr. Alfred Adler.

Attention-Getting

Every normal child seeks attention, but when it is excessive, it becomes a problem. The class clown, the bragger, the over-shy child, the show-off, the

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[3]Duell, Sloan and Pierce, New York (1948)

great 'hero' are examples. Let us consider Jerry, who appears to be a discouraged and frightened child, who will not play ball because he fears getting hurt, but who created a commotion one day when he climbed the outer ledge of a second story window to gain the admiration of other children.

Power-Contest

The child with an enormous drive for superiority and power is difficult to handle. Every situation is a challenge which he must meet and conquer, otherwise he considers himself a failure. The bully, the sly child, the cruel child, are examples. Let us consider Jack. He came late to school explaining that he had to take care of his dog who had been hurt. Another child volunteered the information that he had seen Jack playing with his dog that very morning and that there was nothing wrong with him. Jack insisted the dog was hurt and that he had to bandage his leg. During the lunch hour that day, Jack hurt the dog's leg, bandaged it, and brought the dog to school as 'proof.' Several days later the true story came out. Jack's motivation was to win the argument because he could not bear to be wrong.

Revenge

This goal is closely related to the power drive. Both are difficult to deal with. In the case of the power drive, the goal is to exalt the self; in the case of the revenge drive, the goal is to lower the other. In this respect, they are different aspects of the same goal. Susan's behavior indicates such a drive. She asked to go to the washroom while I was in the midst of explaining a new lesson, and I asked her to wait a moment. Susan thereupon surreptitiously wet her dress with water from a fishbowl. Then she began to cry and to blame me for what had happened. In this way, she tried to make me feel guilty for having frustrated her immediate desire and was able to feel that she had been mistreated.

Discouragement

Discouragement requires a great deal of patience on the part of the teacher because so often it takes a very long time to build up sufficient security in the child so that he will 'try.' There is danger here that the teacher may become discouraged herself and give up trying to train the child to help himself. Such a child creates compassion, and calls on others for help. By their passivity, they put others in their service. Everybody feels sorry for the child who cries, 'I can't!'

Some children may have more than one goal. Marcia is a good example. She stated she was stupid and ugly, that no one liked her and that she didn't care. One day, I complimented her on her perfect spelling, but she insisted that I must have been mistaken because her work could not be perfect. When I proved to her that the paper was faultless, she became furious, crumpled up her paper, threw it on the floor, stamped on it and burst into tears.

The case of Marcia is of special interest not only because she represents a child who is deeply discouraged -- she could not bear to think that anyone

could possibly consider her capable of doing perfect work -- but because her behavior demonstrates how in a complex way all the other goals are involved. For example: By insisting she is imperfect, she gains my attention and when I try to point out her false conception of herself, by showing her that she really did well, I enter into a power contest with her, and she achieves a second goal. Finally, by taking her perfect paper and tearing it up, she gets revenge against me.

How can the teacher best meet the problems that beset her from the complex interactions of pupils, especially when they have so many problems? The final answer will not be found here, but we may examine some aspects of some answers.

Encouragement

Encouragement without understanding, just blind faith in the ability of the child, is probably of little value. Telling a discouraged child that he can succeed will only discourage him more because he may feel that by his failures he has let the teacher down; or, he may sense her insincerity if she merely uses words in which she herself does not believe. Encouragement must be positive, but it must also be realistic. Praise should be given for real accomplishments no matter how slight they may be. Praise must also be given for mere 'trying,' even if there have been no visible accomplishments. However, one needs to be careful not to let encouragement become the primary goal of the child, for he may then operate, not to succeed in the activity, but to get the favorable attention of the teacher.

Discipline

Discipline is a matter of great concern for most teachers. I take the attitude that I cannot expect my children to follow the accepted social rules of behavior, because they do not know them, most of these children come to class with the intention of rebelling against law and order. They have to learn that discipline is necessary and to learn actually to want it because they have discovered that life can be much more pleasant if it is conducted according to rules. Imposed authority can never make a person obey except for a short time, and unless there has occurred a really basic change in attitudes, no worthwhile progress has been made. What is called for is re-evaluation by the child of himself, and a change in attitudes towards others. Only when the child is ready to be fair with others can we begin to give him specific standards of behavior to help him to guide himself.

But what can the teacher do until the child has developed this social feeling? Can she simply overlook infractions, misdeeds and generally wrong behavior? Of course not. Training goes on from the first moment so that the child will know that certain behavior is permitted and some is not. Overlooking even one small infraction of unpermissible behavior may appear to the child as a 'go ahead' signal for other misdeeds. In many cases, a simple remark, one put unexpectedly, will take care of the situation. To a child who talks too loud or to one who whispers, I might say, 'Will you please talk louder so we may hear you better?' or 'Don't you think Mary ought to be given a chance to be heard? Maybe she has something important to say.' All these correcting remarks are made with a smile and yet with gentle firmness. Often it is necessary to avoid an

issue at the time because in this moment of disturbance the teacher and the pupil are apt to become excited. But all such instances must be taken care of, either right then and there if they can be handled properly, or later during the afternoon council meeting when the incident may be brought up spontaneously by one of the students or by the teacher.

Rewards

'Good Behavior' and accomplishment should be its own reward. For this reason I make no use of gold stars, special honors, or other awards. Not only may they create the desire to get the awards by doing disliked work, but the awarding of special attention to one child may create the feeling of greater discouragement on the part of others. Most people make the best progress if they derive pleasure and satisfaction from what they are doing. The case of Paul is an excellent example of how rewards may instill false values in the child. Paul's mother promised him five dollars for every 'A' on his report card. He worked hard in order to win the money. However, when he brought home seven 'A's,' his mother decided that one dollar for each would suffice. Paul rebelled violently. There was no longer any incentive to put forth so much effort in school. To punish his mother, he took no interest in his work and became one of the worst problems in the class.

Punishment

Related to discipline and reward is 'punishment.' Many parents still demand that the child be punished for his misdemeanors, claiming that the good old paddle never hurt anyone. They ignore the fact that they have used corporal punishment without good results. Paradoxically, although they now question the validity of corporal punishment, they nevertheless cannot dissociate themselves from their belief that 'this is what the child needs.' They actually expect the teacher to use methods that they have found ineffective, and they expect the teacher to succeed better than they have done.

The case of Mike may be cited; a rebellious child who was accustomed to severe beatings from his father. Almost daily he begged me to spank him. 'Don't you think that I deserve a spanking?' he would ask. Once, he even brought a paddle so that I could not say I had nothing to beat him with. Mike's case is not exceptional. Numerous children had demanded corporal punishment in order to be set free of their guilt and thus free to 'sin' again.

Natural Consequences

Both reward and punishment induce false values. For example, the child may desire to do well not because he enjoys his activities but only to reap the reward. If the reward is taken away, he no longer has an incentive to do well. The same may occur with punishment. Instead of associating the pain with the action, he may associate it with the punisher.

The most effective answer to this lies in the concept of natural consequences. This means that the child must experience the consequences of his behavior in such a way that he will relate pleasure or pain only to his own behavior and

not to the intervention of anyone else. The 'reward' and the 'punishment' will then be regarded by the child as a *consequence* of his own behavior.

Natural consequences should be discussed with, understood and accepted by the child before their application can be most effective. Otherwise, the child may regard natural consequences as just another way in which adults are unpredictable and cruel. The *why* and *wherefore* of natural consequences should be discussed not only in terms of specific examples but in terms of the general theory. In a comparatively short time, most children understand the general rule. Let us consider this point a bit more carefully.

If the teacher does not permit Johnny to draw during the period when other children are drawing because he was dawdling when he should have been working on his arithmetic, he may well feel upset, because he will consider himself deprived of his just right without any reason. If, on the other hand, during the council meeting, the group accepts the principle that anyone who chooses to dawdle during arithmetic time must do the arithmetic assignment during art time, Johnny no longer can feel resentful toward the teacher who is only putting into application the very principle that he supported.

There is no pat formula to natural consequences. What will work effectively with one child may not work with another. Jack, who likes to go outdoors, may be more affected by being kept in during the recess time than Mary, who hates to go out. Therefore, by treating Johnny and Mary in different ways, similar results are obtained, and since each accepts the teacher's reactions as fair under the circumstances, neither feels that he is being punished. It must be remembered that the use of natural consequences requires an understanding of the child and of the situation. *When* to do *what* and to *whom* requires judgment which takes in a very large number of imponderables, so that every situation becomes unique.

The concept of natural consequences is readily acceptable by the children and they tend to apply it to their out-of-school lives. We may quote some cases to illustrate.

Susan's younger sister had to be coaxed and helped to dress in the morning in order to be in time for the school bus. One day Susan said to me, 'May I have permission to be late to school for a few days? I have finally convinced my mother that she should let my sister take the consequences and miss the school bus if she doesn't get ready in time. She will then have to walk to school, and I would have to walk with her. I don't mind, but my sister won't like the long walk. I'm sure after a few days she will be ready in time.' Susan's plan, it may be interesting to know, worked exactly as she planned.

Lawrence said one day, 'Boy, did I fix my mother yesterday! She cooks carrots every day and she knows how I hate them. She makes me eat them because they are supposed to be good for me. Well, yesterday she prepared a new kind of dessert. She was all excited about it. But I didn't eat it, and I told her that carrots had so filled me that I could not eat anything else. Was she disappointed!'

Bobby said one day, 'Will you please call my mother and tell her yourself! She won't believe me, but maybe she will believe you. My brother throws tantrums every time he can't get what he wants. Mother gets so worried, she gives him

everything. He does it all the time. I told mother to leave him along and that we should all walk out and let him have his tantrum. But no, she is afraid.'

Natural consequences should apply to everybody, not just to the students. Sometimes, the teacher has to suffer the consequences of her behavior. Once having hastily written an assignment on the blackboard and leaving the room for a few minutes, I came back to find several letters of my message encircled in colored chalk, and at the bottom of the blackboard, these words neatly written, 'Careless, please do over.' I made the corrections without any comment, which everybody in class took as a matter of fact, on another occasion when I forgot to announce that there would be a movie showing in the afternoon and as a consequence the class failed to attend, the students asked for twenty minutes longer on the playground as their perfect right. Several teachers to whom I related the incident felt that such permissiveness leads to disorder. This becomes a matter of opinion. I cannot share this pessimism. Children have greater respect for elders who do admit their mistakes, who respect the child's opinion, and who share equally in privileges. I feel no threat to my prestige by being equal with and not 'above' my students.

Parent-Child Relations

As stated before, the relationship between home and the school is directly connected; the better adjusted the child is at home the better adjusted he will be in school. The sooner we remove the conflicts in the home, the quicker will be the progress at school. Working with parents is an important part of a teacher's responsibilities. I try to have meetings with both parents; however most often it is the mother who comes to conferences. It is amazing to discover the number of parents who are totally ignorant of the basic rules of child training. They want to do the best for their children but manage to use the most improper methods for attaining their goals. Nagging, punishing severely, comparing with other children, threatening without being consistent, humiliating the child, etc., are still very prevalent. Although parents often state that they recognize the necessity for changing their methods, they attempt the newly suggested methods for a few days and then fall back to their old procedures. They expect immediate changes in their child, and become discouraged if the 'miracle' does not happen. Often the parents are completely discouraged and have no faith whatsoever in their child. How often have I heard the phrase, 'There is really no use; I have tried everything. You're wasting your time.'

The following example may well indicate the value of working with parents. Terry's mother announced that she was sorry for the teacher who had to have her son in her class, because he was really totally incapable of learning. She explained how once she and her husband, the boy's stepfather, made Terry practice the word 'is' one hundred times, and how at the end he still did not know how to spell the word. Terry was then ten years old and was as discouraged as a child can possibly be. It took months to obtain the slightest change in his attitude. During this time I had frequent conferences with his mother who carried my 'message' to her husband. Gradually, the relationship improved with the parents. Simultaneously, Terry became an entirely different child at school. He made tremendous progress within a short time. Today, he is a comparatively well adjusted child.

Summary

To summarize, in this paper I have attempted to handle only some of the aspects of the work of a special teacher who deals with 'problem' children. My orientation is Adlerian, which means primarily that the child's behavior is viewed as being meaningful and purposive rather than 'abnormal' or perverse. We take the attitude that all children can learn. They not only can, but they want to learn, and they are interested in learning about life in general. They want life to be meaningful, orderly and secure. If we succeed in our endeavor to help them achieve this, their resistance to learning will cease.

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Do Teachers Understand Children? - Rudolf Dreikurs

We have no statistical evidence for the extent to which teachers are able to understand children. However, it seems that *many cannot cope with simple forms of disturbing behavior in the classroom because they are unaware* of the child's motivations in behaving as he does. Knowing it, many teachers would respond differently.

Some teachers understand children through empathy. They sense what the child wants and needs and react constructively. Their knowledge and understanding is usually not acquired during their professional training, since the pscychology taught in most institutions does not provide sufficient information which can be applied to the classroom situation and to any individual child who does not behave well or does not learn.

This state of affairs *is neither the fault of the teachers nor of the training institutions.* It is the result of the present state of psychology and the psychiatry which are plagued with divergent and often contradictory ideas and theories. Educators have to rely on the data which the field of psychology provides.

An autocratic teacher will seek and find evidence for the assumption of an innate goodness or badness, intelligence or dullness in each child. Consequently, he will attempt to 'tame' with punitive restrictions all bad impulses he encounters.

The more democratic the educator is, the more he will follow psychological theories which assume that deficiencies are due to detrimental experiences of the child, which have to be replaced with better training methods. The more 'modern' educator may be affected by the psychoanalytic literature and be inclined to be overpermissive, avoiding repressions which may cause emotional

maladjustment. Others may rely on data about learning, growth, and development provided by various, often unrelated, research studies of experimental psychology.

This kind of psychological information does not provide the teacher with insight into the reasons for the child's immediate behavior, nor for the proper psychological responses to it. However, there is one psychological approach which does permit an immediate understanding of any child. It is the teleoanalytic approach, developed by Alfred Adler and his co-workers, which regards behavior as purposive. *Whatever the child does, right or wrong, good or bad, is understood by the purpose, the goal, which the child has set for himself.*

Another reason for scientific rejection of the teleological approach *is the element of self-determination* which it implies. As long as science was strictly mechanistically and deterministically oriented, there was no room for individual self-determination. Man was entirely determined, either by heredity or by his environment, or by both.

Goal-directed behavior assumes free choice, limitations of deterministic influences, whether from within or from without the individual. Such assumptions were totally unacceptable to the scientific world at the time when Adler and his collaborators formulated a teleological approach in psychology. *Recent developments* in the basic sciences, in physics and contemporary changes in epistemology *point to creativity, self-determination and teleological mechanisms as natural phenomena fortifying Adler's psychological concepts.* Other psychological schools move in the same direction, away from a strictly casual determination to the concepts of perceptions and goals influenced by the individual himself.

Teachers who are exposed to a training in the teleo-analytic approach suddenly become aware *not only of the child's motivation, but of their own often highly detrimental role in fortifying and supporting mistaken goals.* Four characteristic goals are observed behind disturbing or deficient behavior. Every child as a social being, wants to belong. He can only fulfill himself within the group; within it he is trying to find his place. As long as he is not discouraged, he will seek his place through useful contribution, through conformity or initiative, as the situation may require. He *becomes disturbing only if he is discouraged* and does not think that he can succeed through his own strength and ability and with useful means. There he adopts disturbing approaches, still under the assumption that they will provide him with a place in the group.

Such misconception may lead a child either to attract attention, to demonstrate his power to the figures of authority, to get even for all the hurts he has received, or to display real or assumed deficiency in order to be left alone and avoid any tasks where he is sure to fail. These are the four goals which we found in disturbing behavior. *A teacher who is not aware of them not only fails to counteract them, but often actually intensifies them by her reaction.*

The most reliable indication of the child's goals is at the same time one of the most distressing aspects of the teacher-child interaction. *If the teacher wants to know for what purpose a child misbehaves, she merely has to watch her own spontaneous and impulsive reaction:*

If she merely feels annoyed and is inclined to reprimand the child, then it is most probable that he merely made a bid for her attention.

If she feels deeply provoked, showing him that he cannot do that to her, then he probably just wanted to show to her exactly that he can, to demonstrate his power.

On the other hand, when she feels deeply hurt, wondering how anyone can be so mean, then she really reacts as the child wanted her to react -- namely, to be hurt.

And when she is inclined to throw up her hands, feeling that there is nothing that she can do with this child, then he wanted to be left alone.

Teachers can be taught to become sensitive to the goals of each child, be it attention, power, revenge or display of deficiency. One has merely to observe what actually happens between the child and other children. By seeing what happens, one can deduct what the child intended to bring about.

Once the teacher has a tentative impression about the child's goals, she can confirm it by the observation of the child's reaction to the *corrective efforts*. A child who talks out of turn may do so either to keep the teacher busy with himself or to demonstrate his power to resist her demands. The distinction will be obvious when the child is admonished to be quiet. If his talking was merely a bid for attention, then he will be satisfied with the attention he got and stop -- but not for long; soon he tried again to attract the teacher's attention. He will behave quite differently when he is talking for the purpose of defeating the teacher. Her demand for quiet will not move him to stop talking but, rather, to more violent forms of disturbance. After all, he wants to show the teacher that he can do as *he* pleases, and that she has no power to stop him.

Another reliable diagnostic tool in determining the child's goals requires more skill. It consists of the child's reaction to *disclosure* of his goals. *When asked why he misbehaves, the child cannot tell because he actually does not know the reason;* he is not aware of his goals which may be quite obvious to the trained observer. A correct explanation of the purpose of his behavior usually evokes what may be called a '*recognition reflex.*' *The child becomes aware of what he does, although he did not know it before.*

One can fully appreciate the disastrous consequences of the teachers' inability to understand the child's goals when one realizes that most are inclined to respond to the child's provocation in exactly the way described above. *In this way, then the teacher who tries to correct the child actually does only what the child wants, and succumbs to his intentions while attempting to counteract them.* Without learning to understand the child's goals and to deal with them effectively, the teacher simply is no match for any disturbing child.

The crucial question is how long will it take before all teachers receive this kind of training which seems to be so essential for their ability to deal with children in a democratic atmosphere. Most teachers are fully aware that they need help and assistance, training and information. However, school authorities

are less prone to embark on such a new course. It upsets too many accepted standards and principles and would threaten many vested interests, both in teaching and publishing. Therefore, one might be pessimistic about the prospects of such new approaches in training teachers were it not for the fast-rising awareness that we may be confronted with bankruptcy in our educational approaches.

The realization of the dangerous state in the field of education is prompted by the variety of events; the Sputnik, the recognition of our deficiency in scientific training and the rising number and violence of juvenile deliquents. *But more clearly pointing to the bankruptcy of our educational procedures is the number of children who make poor social and academic progress, and particularly the increasing number of those who are expelled from school because of academic or social maladjustment.*

At the time when parents are obliged by law to send their children to school, the schools assume the right to send the children back home because they do not know how to cope with them. The situation probably will become so bad before long that not only the community but also the teachers and the administrators will recognize the need for a reconsideration of some of the basic principles in our present educational system. Then the time may come when new systems which have proven their effectiveness may have a chance to be employed on a large scale.

The Use of Stories in Self-Understanding for Classroom Discussions

Adapted from a paper by: Maurice L. Bullard

Stories of people reveal purpose of behavior and yet are non-threatening to the child or young adult. Few of us can avoid identifying with the character of the story, especially 'if the shoe fits.'

The teacher can develop in her pupils a satisfying sense of sharing, generosity, patience and 'social interest' free of the four goals of misbehavior through the discussion of stories. A few simple suggestions may be helpful.

1. Achieve an air of mystery; don't tell everything and *don't explain* the dynamics. (You may have to help them see the dynamics as part of their training.)

2. Don't tell or imply by tone of voice 'what is bad.' (Discussion and insight come with their putting this in words.)

3. Don't settle for a discussion of the obvious violations of convention. How did the misbehavior serve the child's purpose and how was he 'thinking wrong' in having such an unacceptable purpose.

4. Experiment with story sophistication in relation to age. When it hits home, the story can seem overly simple and still be effective after the class learns to look for the psychological riddles.

5. Adapt the story to the local situation -- the child in the story may spill things in the cafeteria, track in gravel on the gym floor, or tear magazine covers in the library -- to fit a current problem. The teacher can be inventive.

6. A wealth of materials, especially for older children, appears in newspapers.

7. Write or adapt your own stories. Encourage students to do the same.

Stories for Class Discussion

'Dad, I Want The Car' - (High School Level) - B. Fischer
'Dad, can I have the keys for the car?' Bill held out his hand in expectation. Without looking up from the paper, Bill's father reached into his pocket, took out the keys and handed them to Bill, saying, 'Be sure to check the gas, and don't drive too fast.' Without saying a word, Bill grabbed the keys, turned on his heal and stalked to the car. He burned rubber as he pulled away from the curb. When Bill came home, he went straight to his room without returning the keys.

The next morning Bill woke up in good spirits. He returned the car keys when his father asked for them, saying 'When do I get my own keys?'

1. What do you think of Bill? (try to have the incorrect behavior identified)
2. How would Bill have acted if his father had refused him the car? Why?
3. How would he have reacted if his father had criticized his driving when he returned? Why?
4. What do you think of the way his father handled the whole situation?
5. How does Bill see himself? (bring out status and car with peers)

So Quiet Janice (High School and All Levels) - B. Fryer
Janice never got in anyone's way. She always saw to it that she was last in line for recess, for lunch or to go to the library. Of course if someone else wanted to be last, she didn't care.

When Janice came to the reading group she would wait until all the other childrent were seated before she would slide silently into her chair.

One day the teacher asked Janice to read. She began to read but, as usual, she read so softly that no one could hear her. The teacher and the children did everything they could think of to get Janice to read loud enough for all to hear, but they just could not get her to do it.

1. What do you think of Janice?
2. Why do you think she was always so quiet?
3. Could she have read louder?
4. Why didn't she read louder?
5. Was she getting people to notice her?
6. How did she do it?

7. Do you know people like Janice?
8. What other ways could Janice get attention which might be better?

Freddy (High School, Intermediate) - G. Humphreys
Freddy was a friend to everyone. He often did things for strangers, like carrying things for them; giving up his seat on the school bus for another child, and so on.

Freddy had a young sister, Betty. He and Betty did not get along too well. They didn't exactly fight, but they were not the best of friends. Betty was very much interested in school and brought home very good grades. Freddy preferred staying home or outdoors. His school work was not very good. His parents could not understand why he could not do as well as Betty, especially since he was older.

1. What kind of boy is Freddy?
2. Why is he so kind? What does he get out of this?
3. Why isn't he interested in school?
4. What could he do to achieve his goal in another way?
5. Do you know any children who are like this boy?

Larry (Intermediate)
In class Larry has good ideas and works very hard but sometimes he doesn't finish his work because he does it over and over to get it just right. When other children don't agree with Larry, he feels 'picked upon.' If someone else gets a better grade than he does, he often says they cheated.

Larry is very good at sports but when he or his team does not win, he often calls the other players names or he even cries.

His mother and father can't understand why Larry is not steady and dependable like his big brother, Mark.

1. How do you feel about Larry? (develop the concept of perfection as a handicap)
2. What was he really trying to do? (using perfection to be better than others)
3. Was he happy? Why not? (being better than others turns others against you)
4. How would he make the teacher feel if he were displeased with her?
5. Why does he think he must be perfect? (parent attitude and Mark)
6. What could Larry do well?
7. Have you ever known anyone who acted like Larry?

Jean (Intermediate Level) - T. Goldman
Jean was eleven years old in the fourth grade. Sometimes, the children teased her about it. Only this morning, Sandra, who sat in front of her, had said to her, 'You know, Jean, I think you'll still be in grade school when I graduate from high school.' Jean did not answer, as she never did when anyone indicated that she was not very bright.

She never said unkind things to anyone. In fact, she spoke very little to anyone.

In school, Jean spent most of the time looking out of the window or playing with some objects in her desk. She was often lost in her daydreams, and did not hear what the teacher said. Everybody seemed to accept the fact that she was a bad listener and a lazy girl who never touched her work.

At home, it was not much different.

Her older sister, Brenda, called her 'stupid.' She had heard this for so long that Jean got used to this name. Whenever Brenda called, 'Hey, Stupid,' Jean looked up and sometimes asked, 'What do you want?' Jean thought that Brenda was very smart and that she could do anything. The day before yesterday, when Mother was sewing kitchen curtains, she let Brenda do some of the sewing on the machine. Mother thought that Brenda was very good at it. Jean wanted to try also, but her mother would not let her. She said, 'No, Jean. I paid too much money for this machine, and I can't afford to let you break it.'

1. What do you think of Jean?
2. How does she behave at school?
3. How does she behave at home?
4. Why doesn't she tell Brenda off, or any other child who calls her 'Stupid?'
5. What is her goal?
6. What are some reasons for her behavior?
7. How can someone help her?

Alan (Intermediate)
Alan was nine years old. He was big for his age. Some people thought that he was eleven or even twelve. Sometimes, this pleased Alan, especially when the older children in school or in his neighborhood let him play with them. But often Alan didn't want to be even nine. He would have preferred being only three or younger.

1. What do you think of Alan?
2. Why does he like to be older at certain times and younger at other times?
3. How could he be happy being his own age? What would he have to do?

Tom (Primary & Intermediate) - C. Moore
'Tom, will you please pick up your clothes?'
'Ah, Mom, there's a great western on TV.'
'You might have considered that before it started.'
Tom did not answer but kept watching the movie.
'Tom, go and pick up your clothes!' Tom ignores his mother and continues watching.

Mother came into the room and switched off the TV. She took Tom's hand and pulled him into his room. 'Now pick up your clothes and then you may go back.' Tom grumbled but he did as he was told. On the way back to the living room he kicked his sister, Tina, who was playing with her doll.

1. What kind of a boy is Tom?
2. Why is he so insistent upon watching TV?
3. What could he do to achieve his goal in another way?
4. Do you know any children who are like this boy?

Sue (Primary & Intermediate) - J. Robb
Sue was playing in her back yard with her toys. She had lots of toys, more than any one of her friends. Usually, Sue would take out most of her toys. She just liked to have them all out. Today, as she was playing with her doll, Marilyn, the neighbor's little girl came over. 'Hello Sue. May I play with you?' Marilyn said, 'That's a pretty doll,' and tried to touch the doll's shoe. Sue quickly snatched her doll away and gave Marilyn an angry look. 'I'll go home and bring my doll, then we can play together,' and with this, Marilyn ran off.

A few minutes later, Marilyn returned with a big doll in a pink dress. She brought her brush, and sat down next to Sue and started to comb her doll's hair. Sue stopped combing her doll's hair, and after a moment threw her doll to the ground, and snatched Marilyn's doll. Marilyn pulled her doll back, holding her tightly, saying, 'No, you can't have my doll. You have yours and I have mine. You wouldn't even let me touch your doll.' At this, Sue started screaming and ran into her house. Marilyn heard her say, 'Mother, don't let Marilyn stay here; she hit me and she is mean.'

1. How do you feel about Sue? Why do you like her why don't you like her?
2. Do you think that she has many friends?
3. What does she get out of her behavior?
4. Why is she that way? Has anybody helped her become the kind of child she is?
5. How would you treat her if she were your child?
6. Do children ever behave that way in school? What do they do which would be very similar to what Sue did?

Gary, The Snatcher - C. Moore
Gary is a little boy of three who is always getting into mischief. He especially enjoys snatching something from other children or from his father, running off with it and laughing. Of course, the children and the father run after him and try to get back what he had taken. Gary only laughs. When he thinks that he will not be able to hold on to the object, he throws it away and laughs still harder.

Gary seldom takes anything from his mother. Once when he took her slipper and tried to run off with it, she threw him the other slipper, too, and kept on reading her book, never even glancing up. Gary stood for a while, not knowing what he should do. Then he took both slippers and put them by his mother's chair.

1. What do you think of Gary?
2. Why is he taking the things from everybody except his mother?
3. What does he get out of this behavior?
4. What would you do if you were his father or a child from whom he likes to take things? How would you stop him without getting into a fight?
5. Do you know of any behavior which is similar to that of Gary?
6. What could we do in such a case?

Laurie (Primary) - B. Wilkin & C. Nawrocki
Laurie cried when she was late for school; she cried when it was time to work; she cried when it was play time. Most of the time, Laurie just wanted to sit and look sad. If her teacher asked her a question, she would start to cry. The children would say, 'Poor Laurie,' and try to help her. Many times on the playground Laurie would fall and big tears would bring all of the other children to see if she was hurt. And most of the time she was not hurt at all.

One day Laurie wore a dress that was prettier than the other girls' dresses. She was very happy when she said, 'Your dresses are not as pretty as mine.'

1. What do you think of Laurie?
2. How do you think Laurie felt about herself?
3. How did the children feel about Laurie?
4. Will the other children get tired of Laurie acting this way?
5. Why was Laurie happy?
6. How could we help Laurie with her problem?

*Classroom Group Discussions With Children** - Bernice Grunwald

What are the merits of group discussion with young children? Can they understand the dynamics of their behavior? Isn't it a waste of time which ought to be given to the teaching of subject matter? Won't the children talk forever in order to avoid school work?

These are but a few questions which teachers pose. Most of them see no value in such discussions; some would like to try but feel that they cannot afford to take the time because they need all the time for the teaching of subject matter.

I cannot share the pessimistic attitude that some teachers take, nor the fears of the well-meaning ones. Talking things over has strong theraputic value for all people. The value lies not only in the contents of the discussion but also in the pure freedom to talk without being hushed up or ridiculed. Children have a need to talk, and little opportunity to discuss the things that really matter to them.

Talking is a sharing medium. The child who cannot share himself is usually a lonely child, one who is constantly on guard, afraid of being hurt. To him sharing means giving of himself, and since he is only on the receiving side, he cannot participate in a discussion on a give and take basis.

The withdrawn child will withdraw from participation in group discussion as he withdraws from almost all participation.

**From a lecture by Bernice Grunwald, Alfred Adler Institute, Chicago, Illinois June 1960.*

In group discussion, the immediate focus is on the problem as it affects everyone, and not on the individual child. The child who fears to speak up because he may say the wrong thing -- the thing which may meet with disfavor by the group, will not speak up either. He will not risk being what to him is, 'a failure.'

The show-off may withdraw from participation as soon as he realizes that he cannot put on a show.

Many children would like to participate in the discussion, but they do not know how, for at home they are either the ones who give orders and rule, or the ones who must obey orders without questioning them. They have never experienced a friendly discussion.

With such a variety of problems, how can a teacher unite the class into a friendly, outgoing and constructive discussion? When does she begin training her students toward this end?

Group discussion must start as soon as the teacher becomes acquainted with her class. She may start on the first day of school. Such a discussion might concern the decorating of the classroom; planning the activities for the first week; a get-together party with another class, etc. It must be a topic toward which most children have an attitude and would respond if asked to voice an opinion. Gradually, the teacher may bring up problems for discussions concerning order in the corridor and in the washroom. This, too, is a problem which concerns everybody (yet, nobody in particular) but it takes in the necessity to come to a conclusion and a decision. Later on, it must be evaluated for its effectiveness. If the suggestions the children had made were ineffective, new and better ones must be decided upon.

A teacher must encourage children who consistently remain quiet to take part in the conversation. To such a child, she may say, 'What is your opinion, John? We would like to know how you feel about this problem.' A teacher should never ask for suggestions or advice from a child unless she is prepared to take them seriously.

After two or three weeks, when the children have already achieved some idea of how to conduct a discussion, the teacher may bring up a problem which concerns specific children, although she may avoid using their names. She might say, 'You have been wonderful to me with your suggestions. It has helped me a great deal, and I should like you to know that I appreciate your efforts. I am wondering if we could discuss some of the problems people have, mine or yours. We could help one another by talking things over. The students of my previous class did it often, and they found it very helpful. What do you think?' If the children do not understand, she may say, 'I am thinking of people who have difficulties in getting along with others, doing their work in school, getting here on time, being orderly, disturbing the class and so on. I am sure, you understand now what I mean. I think that we could help children who have such difficulties, if we talk about them in a manner which would not make these children feel that we criticize them, but that we are interested in helping them. Sometimes, you may talk about something I don't do quite the way I ought to be doing it. Teachers have difficulties, too, and I would be very grateful to you if you could help me.'

In most cases, the children will understand what the teacher is after, and will agree to such discussions.

If the teacher feels that her class is not ready to discuss a problem which concerns a classmate, she may bring up a problem which one of her former students had, or she may use a character from a story in which the latter has difficulties in social adjustment. Almost every story lends itself for such a discussion.

Let us follow a discussion of a story prepared by the teacher.

'Carmen was in second grade. She was a very smart girl according to everyone who knew her. She liked to go to school but she did not do any work in class. She spent most of her time drawing, walking out of her seat, talking to her neighbors. This made the teacher angry and she often scolded and punished Carmen for her behavior. The parents were also very angry with her; they could not understand why she behaved that way since they were always very good to her; they gave her everything she asked for.'

Teacher: 'What do you think of Carmen?'
Child: 'Well, she sure doesn't act right.'
Teacher: 'What do you mean?'
Child: 'She is not nice.'
Teacher: 'Could someone explain why she doesn't act right and isn't nice?'
Child: 'She should be doing her work in class just like everyone else.'
Teacher: 'Yes, she should, but she doesn't. Why doesn't she?'
Child: 'Maybe it is too hard.'
Teacher: 'Do you believe that the work is too hard for Carmen?'
Child: 'Maybe it isn't.'
Teacher: 'How do we know that the work isn't too hard for her?'
Child: 'It said that she is smart and that everybody said so.'
Teacher: 'That's right. She could do the work easily, yet she is not doing it. Let's see if you could figure out why she isn't.'
Child: 'I think she is just stubborn and has to have her way.'
Other Child: 'I think Carmen is spoiled.'
Teacher: 'What do you mean?'
Child: 'Well, she gets everything she wants.'
Teacher: 'Is that bad?'
Child: 'Well, if you get everything all the time, you want everything all the time, and if you can't have it, you get mad.'
Teacher: 'Larry said a while ago that he thinks that Carmen has to have her way. How would this have anything to do with her not doing the work?'
Child: 'I mean, that she isn't going to do the work because she wants to do only what she decides she wants to do.'
Teacher: 'How do other children feel about Carmen having to have her way?'
Child: 'Well, on the playground, she never plays a game with us unless we play what she wants to play.'
Teacher: 'Now, why is it so important for Carmen to have to have her own way?'
Child: 'I still think that she is spoiled.'
Teacher: 'What does Carmen get out of having her way?'
Child: 'She wants to be boss.'
Teacher: 'Why is it important for her to be the boss? Try to think about my question, and also try to see if you can find something that she gets out of behaving as she does.'
Child: 'Yes, she gets a lot of attention.'

Teacher: 'From whom?'
Child: 'From her parents. They give in to her.'
Teacher: 'What else do they do? It may seem to some that what she gets is unpleasant, but I wonder.'
Child: 'They scold her.'
Teacher: 'That's right. Isn't this also attention? Look how she is keeping her parents busy with her. Who else gives her this kind of attention?'
Many Children: 'The teacher.'
Teacher: 'Yes, the teacher. As we see, Carmen keeps many people busy. Now, let us see if Carmen could get attention in a different way. I mean, in a pleasant way.'
Child: 'I think she could.'
Teacher: 'How?'
Child: 'If she is smart, she could do good work and get attention.'
Teacher: 'Yes, I think, you are very right. She could also be a helper to the teacher. Every teacher needs help, and Carmen could be of great help to her.'
Teacher: 'You see, how well you could help Carmen understand her problem. I am sure that you could help equally well someone in our class who is having difficulties. Maybe there is somebody here who has Carmen's problem. I hope this child will feel free to talk about it next time when we have a discussion.'

This is but one example of a group discussion with children. A resourceful teacher will find ways and means to bring up problems for discussion which will, invariably, apply to some child in class. In time, the children will discuss the problems John or Mary has. In time, the teacher will be able to withdraw more and more, and ask occasional questions, so as to keep the discussion going and to the subject.

A teacher must be a good listener. She must sit with the children, not, as some do, behind the desk, doing some paper work while the group discussion is in progress. If the teacher gives her full attention, the children will do likewise.

If the teacher observes listlessness, she may invite the child to voice an opinion concerning the topic of discussion, or she may ask the speaker to stop until everybody pays attention.

As teachers, we must not use discussions to express merely our own ideas. This, usually, results in 'preaching' and is not a discussion. Preaching may be necessary occasionally, but if overdone, the children stop listening, and rarely know what she has been saying.

At the end of the week, the teacher may have an evaluation of the week's progress for discussion. Thus, the children learn where they have planned well and where they need to improve.

*Problems and Suggestions**

1. It is usually advisable to set up a specific time each week for the group discussion to take place, so that the children can plan ahead for this.

   a. Generally, unless an extreme emergency, specific problems should be held over until this time, when the children can expect that they will be brought up.

2. As Mrs. Grunwald has suggested, it is usually advisable to talk about a fictitious case not related to specific classroom behavior to start with.

   a. The next step might be to make a fictitious case out of a problem which actually exists in the class, but without mentioning any names. The children will know who is involved, but use of names should be avoided, *unless* the child referred to himself brings his own situation up.

3. Occasionally, you may find it necessary to bring the students into your confidence about a particular child who most of the children dislike for one reason or another. Some kind of errand can be formulated to get this child out of the classroom, while the others are discussing his case.

   a. The major emphasis on such a case must be 'How can we help this child to feel that he belongs to the group.' Usually the children will express negative feelings towards the child in question, but the teacher should keep wondering out loud, 'How can we help this child?' as well as 'Does he do this because he's really mean (stupid, cross, or however he is initially labeled) or because he feels he can't get recognition or attention any other way?'

   b. Generally, if the pattern of the discussions has been established children will bring up ideas as to how such a child can be helped to get recognition through constructive activity. It is also remarkable how they will go out of their way to refrain from reacting negatively to such a child, even when provoked.

   c. Essentially the major emphasis here would not be attempting to make the child *special*, but 'how can we help him to better become a member of the group?'

4. Once the pattern has been established where the children bring up their own individual problems for the group to discuss, the above may not be necessary, except in extreme cases, of revengeful or severely discouraged children.

5. Emphasis should *always* be toward the four goals of misbehavior, and *never* deeper, except to point out the child's need to belong, to be liked and wanted by others. There is little likelihood of your getting into trouble in these discussions, regardless of the personal nature of the problems presented as long as you stick to this rule.

**Posed by L. Grey, San Fernando Valley State College, Los Angeles, California, who attended the lecture and prepared the original transcription.*

a. Your efforts should always be toward getting the children to express these goals in their own words, as much as possible, with your interpretations only coming if they cannot seem to bring them out through questioning.

b. As indicated by Mrs. Grunwald, goals are generally only understood by children when expressed functionally, or in terms of activity or movement, i.e.

(1) AGM: 'He did it because he wants the teacher to make a fuss over him, to pay attention to him, etc.'
(2) Power: 'He did it to prove he was the boss, and could do what he wanted without anybody stopping him.'
(3) Revenge: 'He did it to get even, because he thinks everybody is against him and wants to hurt him.'
(4) Display of Inadequacy: 'He wants everybody to leave him alone.'

6. Always refrain from contradicting or speaking critically of any student's offering, *even if it is wrong, punitive, or negativistic.* The best way to handle it is to ask others what they think of this, do they agree or disagree and why. Usually statements such as this are refuted very quickly without the student involved feeling you are censuring him.

7. Don't stand aside completely, however, and let the conversation go on unrestrained. It will either get out of hand or bog down very quckly, if this happens.

8. Don't attempt to jump in and solve the problem until it has been thoroughly explored.

9. Don't let the children humiliate one another. If such a statement is made, ask other children what they think about it; if they tend to agree, you might say, 'Do you really think he's just mean, stupid, etc., or do you really think there might be another reason for what he's doing?' to try to lead them toward the goal of the misbehavior, and ways to help the child change his behavior.

10. Once the children at any level, find out you are willing to let them say anything they want, and that the purpose of the discussions is to help them with personal problems, you will be amazed at the freedom with which they will express themselves, as well as the spirit of co-operativeness and helpfulness they will display. Above all, you will make many mistakes to start with, but if the rules above are followed, your chances of making serious error are negligible, and the results may far exceed your expectations.

COUNSELING PRINCIPLES

Conceptual Foundation of Counseling - Adlerian Theory and Practice
by Don Dinkmeyer

Rogerians, Freudians, trait and factor theorists -- the exponents of personality theories that have influenced current counseling practice are numerous. The school counselor should be familiar with the fundamentals of a variety of theoretical formulations.

Among those who have made noteworthy contributions to the conceptual foundations of counseling is Alfred Adler. Adler had much experience with children in school, and his experiences provide us with many insights into the counseling process.

Adlerian therapy is characterized by an uncovering, analytical and interpretive emphasis. While close to Rogers in its philosophy of the nature of man, it is quite divergent from the Rogerian school in practice and technique. Adlerians place more emphasis on counseling as a cognitive process than do the Rogerians. There is a greater concern for acquiring certain types of information.

Adlerians are interested in the family constellation of the client, the psychological position of the individual among his siblings, and the ages, sex and roles of the various siblings as viewed by the counselee. The general family atmosphere is explored as to certain relations within the family.

Counseling is seen as a learning process where the individual learns about himself and his interpersonal relationships. It is educational in the sense that it serves as a re-educative bridge to better self understanding and better relationships.

Purposive Behavior

Man is perceived as an indivisible social being whose every action has a purpose. This is differentiated from mechanistic-deterministic theories in that it places a stress on the holistic nature of behavior and points to both freedom of choice and purposiveness of behavior as central in understanding the individual. Social striving and the individual's functioning in his social setting are important.

The Adlerians believe that all behavior is purposive and that actions are directed toward goals. They feel it is more important to recognize the purpose than the cause or genesis of the symptom. While not failing to take causes into account, they add a dimension to our understanding of an individual by viewing the purposes.

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Although the causes of many problems cannot be changed by either counselor or client, the client's use of his situation and his purposes are subject to change.

Counseling is directed towards developing an understanding of client goals, an understanding that first resides in the counselor and then in the client. However, all hypotheses about purposes and goals are set up tentatively and become effective therapeutically when accepted and internalized by the counselee.

All behavior has social meaning. Man is best understood when viewed in terms of his social setting. Social striving in this system is seen as primary, not secondary. The counselor looks at the functioning of the individual and explores his adjustment in the life tasks of work, social and sexual roles.

For the student he investigates adjustment relative to school tasks. Does the individual participate in the work of school; does he seem to enjoy his work?

The area of social adjustment is also explored. The counselor is interested in how the counselee gets along with peers and with adults. Both the quality and quantity of friendships are explored.

Finally the feelings of adequacy in the male or female role are investigated in order to determine both how he feels about himself in this area and if he gets along with members of the opposite sex. This provides a handy over-view of the major areas of interpersonal difficulty.

Life Style

To understand the individual, one must know the pattern of his life -- his life style. The style of life, the evaluation of self and society, is the key to understanding the individual. It tells us why he acts as he does and enables us to predict behavior in the future with a fair amount of validity. It serves as a guide in the planning of counseling.

Awareness of the basic assumptions of the client enables the counselor to understand client behavior. Successful counseling will provide the client with insight and facilitate the change of his behavior.

Each individual has the creative power to make biased interpretations of all that he experiences and to assign personalized meanings to his experiences. This emphasizes for the counselor the importance of determining the subjective view of the client. *Adlerians are vitally interested in how the patient sees the situation.* They are not there to establish the facts, but to establish how the client sees the facts.

All of the psychological processes can be understood in terms of self-consistent organization, and understanding the goals provides insight into the life style.

Neurotic symptoms are seen as safeguards which help maintain the self-deception. The symptons have a purpose. They may enable the individual to defend the self, gain attention, show his social power and control over others, get even or confirm his already present faulty views. The client is guided to see and use new solutions to his problems.

On the basis of the foregoing assumptions, it becomes important to see the purpose of emotions and symptoms. Emotions are not seen as some type of mystical driving force, but instead as movements that serve the individual's purposes. Emotions can be seen as social tools that facilitate the achievement of goals.

Maladjustment

A criterion for maladjustment is found in the lack of social interest. Insofar as the client lacks the ability to co-operate and to be concerned about others, he lacks interpersonal adjustment.

Psychopathology is a result of mistaken concepts and inadequate psychological movement. Overambition, discouragement and the striving from a felt minus to a plus position are crucial elements in understanding the dynamics of behavior.

The discouraged individual lacks confidence in himself. He anticipates failure. He has a mistaken evaluation of his situations and functions as if things were hopeless (2).

Overambition comes from the concern to be better and more than one is. An achievement never leaves this individual satisfied: he only desires to excel. As one might predict, when he cannot be the most successful in an area, he gives up and becomes the least because this also serves to draw attention to him.

Thus, an important ingredient of any counseling situation is encouragement. The counselor is more than acceptant, *he values the individual as he is and focuses on his assets.* This faith enables the client to build faith in himself. In the counseling process any positive effort is recognized, not only successes. The client is enabled to build his self-confidence and self-respect (1).

Maladjustment in this model is interpersonal, not intrapersonal. The client must solve the life tasks and develop his relations with people. More time is spent in discussion of the current stream of life than in extensive review of the past.

Four-Phase Approach

There are four phases of counseling for this orientation: the relationship, the investigation of dynamics, interpretation to the client and re-orientation.

The *relationship* sought in therapy is a co-operative one. It is vital that the counselor and the counselee establish a *common* goal. Counseling is conversation with a purpose, and if it is to be effective it should be a common purpose. The relationship is one of mutual trust and respect. This is more than a mere rapport; it implies collaboration and requires the already-mentioned alignment of goals.

The relationship in counseling requires close co-operation, and for many individuals it is the first good human relationship. The individual should feel understood and should anticipate success from the counseling relationship.

The *investigation* explores the current life situation as it is viewed by the individual. Here is where the counselor investigates the complaints, problems and symptoms. The objective situation and the functioning of the individual in the three major areas of life -- work, social and sex -- are investigated and discussed.

An understanding of the dynamics of the individual gives us access to the personality or life style. This is obtained by an investigation of the formative years. The counselor is interested in the early family atmosphere, the relationship between the parents and the client's relationship with the parents.

The client's position in the family constellation is significant. Modern Adlerians are not concerned merely with ordinal position, but instead with psychological position. While it is important to learn if the client is oldest, second, youngest, middle or the only child, one also should determine the sex of the siblings and the variances in ages in the constellation.

The client's feelings about his relative position among his siblings in a variety of traits must be obtained. Recollections of early childhood are consistent with the pattern of life as seen by the client. The early recollections as taken from the client provide another method of seeing the goals and mistaken assumptions.

Adlerian *interpretations* characteristically put an emphasis on goals. They confront the client with not only his feelings but the purpose of these feelings. The individual's *purposes, intentions and private logic are pointed out.* The basic premise of the life style is regularly referred to. *While the client may not be told what to do, he is informed about the purpose of his behavior, and then he can draw his own conclusions.*

There is a direct and deliberate exploring of values. The mirror technique, whereby the individual sees himself, is used. In this technique the counselee is confronted with his goals and intentions. This is used to stimulate change by making the individual aware of his part in the decisions he makes relative to his psychological direction.

In the *reorientation* phase the client gives up his mistaken concepts and beliefs in favor of more accurate evaluations. One of the more important changes during conseling is the change in the self-concept. Adlerians are interested in changing the faculty value systems insofar as they cause the client to function ineffectively in his interpersonal relationships.

Adler's Contribution

What, then, can Adlerian theory contribute to the conceptual foundations of counseling? It presents a model that reveals man as purposive and goal-directed, one whose behavior can best be understood subjectively and in terms of its social meaning. This goal becomes the final cause and, for the counselor, the working hypothesis.

Motivation is understood in terms of pulls instead of pushes. Knowledge of the life style helps one to see the dynamic unity and pattern in all psychological movement. Many confusing, contradictory cases take on meaning when viewed systematically.

In this technique the counselor is active in the sense that he explores the interpersonal relationships and conducts the investigation. He analyzes and seeks understanding in terms of the present purposes of the client. The counselor listens in order to pick up the theme and the direction of psychological movement. He will also interrupt to point out self-deceptive tendencies. He may interpret and suggest, but it is up to the patient to decide.

Examples

Some of these principles can best be seen through case illustration.

A boy of 11, Steve, comes for counseling. Though of above average I.Q. he has not produced as the teacher expects in the classroom. The counselor discusses what things they might do together to help Steve, and they eventually focus on the school problem.

Steve talks about an eight-year-old sister, who does exceptionally well in school. She is seen as a bother and someone who restricts his movements.

After developing an awareness of the client's feelings, the counselor formulates a tentative hypothesis. He asks, 'Could it be that you want to show Miss Wilson that you can't?'

The first response is a hesitant 'No,' but his smile shows a recognition of his purpose. Further discussion brings Steve to further awareness of how he demonstrates his inadequacy and how it excuses him from certain school tasks.

The counselee has some interesting early recollections including: 'When I was five my friend could ride a two-wheeler, but I could only ride a tricycle. I tried one day to catch up with him, but couldn't. I felt bad.'

Also, 'I remember when I was in first grade, the teacher told me I would have to do the work over. My parents felt I was too small; I felt unhappy.'

He operates on the faulty assumption that: a) I am not as much as others my age; b) I can get people to serve me; c) People don't believe I can function as well as I ought to.

Future discussions were directed at helping Steve to see his assets and build faith in himself.

Jane, 13, is a child who demonstrates continuous interpersonal difficulties. She has strong oppositional tendencies and does not get along well with peers, teachers or parents.

Her early recollections can be interpreted to tell us she feels, 'People don't treat me right,' and 'I am not as much as I should be.'

Here the relationship is more difficult to establish. The counselor must show that he is not easily discouraged and doesn't expect too much.

In a discussion about her home Jane demonstrates strong negative feelings toward parental management. She admits she is determined to get even and frequently is successful. Here is where parent conferences are of value, and a discussion of new ways in managing Jane is held.

In the counseling sessions Jane tried to prove she is vicious. The counselor offers the tentative hypothesis, 'Could it be you feel you have to get even?' Jane replies, 'Yes, sort of.' A discussion ensues regarding revenge.

Some of the following sessions were used to encourage Jane by showing she was trusted and is a person of value.

Summary

Adlerian theory, then, adds a dimension to the counselor. He may study causes, but he goes beyond to an awareness of purposes. Thus he gains insight into some really significant factors in understanding and treating the individual. The well-educated counselor will want to become familiar with the formulations of the Adlerians as he develops his personal theory of counseling.

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A Rationale For Interviewing Parents - Manford Sonstegard

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People interview each other constantly. There is hardly anyone who, if he communicates at all, does not engage in interviewing someone. Therefore, kinds and types of interviews are unlimited.

Much of the interviewing that takes place is spontaneous and unlearned as illustrated by this humorous exchange:

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'Would you tell me please, which way I ought to walk from here?'
'That depends a good deal on where you want to get to,' said the Cat.
'I don't much care where--' said Alice.
'Then it doesn't matter which way you walk,' said the Cat.
'So long as I get somewhere,' Alice added.
'Oh, you're sure to do that,' said the Cat, 'if you only walk long enough!'

Interviewing, as part of counseling, requires special skills, knowledge, creativity, and special techniques -- all of which have to be learned. A counselor should get results if only he keeps on long enough. But for the counseling to be effective, the counselor must know where he is going. Once proper knowledge and technique are acquired, the professionally growing counselor improves and perfects his interviewing skill through continuous practice.

There are general techniques or principles of interviewing which are applicable to any counseling situation. However, the adroit counselor adapts his interviewing techniques to each individual he counsels while adhering to fundamental psychological principles. The particular techniques he applies at the moment are governed by a number of factors. The reason for the individual's need for counseling is one of the primary factors to be considered. Interviewing a high school student presents a situation different from that involved in interviewing an elementary school child, for example. There are still other differences when a parent is interviewed; the pattern has to be unique for this particular kind of interview.

A parent interview is unique for at least two reasons. First, in his initial contact, the parent does not come, except in unusual cases, for psychological help for himself; he comes because he is baffled by the behavior of one or more of his children. Thus, the counselor is confronted with an adult who comes to ask for counseling for someone else. Second, the parent is generally not concerned with the 'why' of the child's behavior, but rather with 'what can be done about it.'

The counselor cannot help the parent find out what he might do to improve the deficiencies or misbehavior of his child until he is able to discover the reasons for the child's behavior. To attempt to counsel a parent who seeks help without first ascertaining the meaning of the child's behavior would be comparable to a doctor's prescribing a drug without diagnosing the individual's illness. Since the behavior of the child is causatively related to his interpersonal relationship with his parents, counseling the child without simultaneously counseling the parents would be comparable to the struggle of Sisyphus.

Counseling the parent may be characterized by four distinct steps. First the counselor has to establish a proper relationship with the parent. Next he has to understand the parent and his problem. After the counselor understands the problem, he must help the parent understand himself and his interaction with the child. The last step involves reorientation of the parent.

The interview with the parent should reveal the reason for the child's behavior. An interview with the child follows; if he has difficulties in school, the teacher should also be interviewed. The first interview, if properly conducted, establishes a solid and constructive counseling relationship between counselor and parent.

A carefully structured first interview is essential for successful counseling of parents. The counselor first encourages the parent to describe the nature of his problem. 'Please tell me why you are here,' or 'Why did you come to talk to me?' may be a good opening statement. Or one can ask, 'What is your problem?' or 'What are you concerned about?'

Since the parent has come for a specific purpose, an uninhibited narration of the child's deficiencies usually ensues: how he behaves, what he does wrong, his conflicts with sibling(s), or eating problems, for example. Some troubles in school may also be disclosed. Because of the parents' spontaneous response, the counselor may fall into the error of letting him ramble on indefinitely. The information may be interesting but not helpful for an understanding of the child.

During the initial phase of the interview, the counselor asks the parent to elaborate when statements are of a significant nature. For example, the parent relates that the child has begun to lie. Lying means one thing to one person and something else to another. Whether the lying is pathological or merely a defense against the parents' insurmountably high standards, criticism, nagging, and fault-finding, for example, cannot be ascertained without encouraging the parent to amplify. This may be done by asking, 'What happened before this? What did you say? What did you do when--? What did he do when you--?' The basic and primary objective of the interview with the parent is to discover why the child behaves the way he does. In other words, what purpose does the child have in doing what he does?

The behavior of a child does not just happen. Because he is a rational being, he does not merely react to environmental stimulation, but he acts as well. Action is movement, and it is movement toward something which the individual wants. The objective for which he strives, then, becomes his goal. The goal seeking becomes related to his perception of the relationships between himself and the people with whom he interacts. Thus, the child is not predictable; his behavior depends upon the decision he makes, although he may not be aware that he is deciding what he is doing. Consequently, the initial report of the parent is followed by specific questions to discover the reason for the child's doing what he does.

The nature of the child's interpersonal relationships with persons with whom he interacts is fundamental to an understanding of his behavior. This is almost never covered spontaneously by the parent. The counselor will of necessity guide the parent in relating pertinent information so that he may gain clear insight in certain pertinent areas. One of these is the child's position in the family and his interpersonal relationships with siblings. Who is the eldest? Next in line? How does he get along with the other children in the family? Whom does he protect? Who protects him? With whom is he in conflict?

Suggested Outline

In order to get some insight, one should ask, whenever the parent reports some kind of misbehavior, 'What did you do about it?' Knowing that, one can see the field in which the child operates and the purpose of his disturbing behavior. Then one can ascertain the following significant facts:

I. Under what conditions did the complaint or problem arise?
   A. At what age?
   B. What has been its duration?

II. What is child's relationship to siblings?
   A. Position in sibling sequence.
      1. Distribution of males and females?
      2. How siblings are different?
      3. How siblings are similar?
   B. With whom is child compared?
      1. Who is child most like?
      2. Who is child least like?
   C. Nature and extent of
      1. Conflicts?
      2. Rivalry?
      3. Competition? (Explain)
      4. Submission?
      5. Rebellion?
         a. Active?
         b. Passive?

III. Environmental influence
   A. Relatives
      1. Grandparents
      2. Other relatives
   B. Other people living in house
   C. Neighbors

IV. What are you doing about it?
   A. Relate in detail the interaction.
   B. Clarify if necessary by: What do you mean by that?

V. In what other way does the child stand out?
   A. Conditions under which he functions adequately?
   B. In what way is he successful?

VI. What is the nature of the daily routine?
   A. How does the child get up in the morning?
      1. Who awakens him?
      2. Is he called more than once?
      3. What about dressing?
      4. What about breakfast?
   B. What happens as he gets off to school?
   C. Describe the lunch hour -- the dinner (each mealtime)
   D. How does the child get off to bed?
      At what time?

VII. What happens when the family goes out together?
   A. Preparation for going out and special efforts
   B. What happens when away?

VIII. How are the child's social relationships?
- A. Ability to make friends with others
  1. Neighborhood children
  2. Adults
  3. Children at school
- B. Does he have pets, and does he take care of them?
- C. Attitude toward school
  1. School work
  2. Relationships with teachers
  3. How does he deal with people in authority?
- D. What impressions has he gained from the family situation?
  1. Has there been any tragedy in the family?
  2. Who is boss?
  3. What methods of discipline have been used?
  4. What kind of punishment?
  5. What kind of supervision?

IX. What does the child think about his future?
- A. What does he want to be when he grows up?
- B. What is the occupation of other members of the family?

X. Does the child have nightmares, bad dreams?

Follow-up or Responses

The suggested outline is merely a frame-of-reference. Rigid adherence to the form will result in a merely mechanical interview, devoid of the subtlety through which the counselor discovers the nature of the interpersonal relationships existing between parents and child. An inflexible dependence upon the outline may block sensitivity to the parents' reactions to the interview. For example, the parent may become apprehensive when asked to elaborate on his response to the child's behavior. Even though, 'What do you do about it (the behavior)?' is an essential part of the interview in providing the counselor with valid insights into the parents' relationship with the child, he may accept the parents' actions without either verbal or non-verbal approval or disapproval. He may, however, point out the parents' faulty methods as the interview progresses. Thus, unsound psychological approaches the parent may be using are interpreted and reoriented during the interview or during the counseling process, whichever approach the counselor considers most suitable.

Even though the counselor is mindful of establishing a good relationship with the parent during the interview, he should not take for granted the statements made in answer to the question, 'What is being done about it?' Every statement of action which is not clear should be questioned, 'What do you mean by that?' The wisdom of this procedure can best be illustrated by the case of the parent who relates that the child has temper tantrums. To, 'What to you do about his temper tantrums?' the mother replies, 'I ignore them.' This is a psychologically sound method of handling temper tantrums. But a child whose temper tantrums are ignored will not continue to have tantrums because they are futile if there is no audience. Therefore, the counselor was required to follow-up with, 'What do you mean, you ignore them?' To this the mother replied, 'I make him get up from the floor and go to his room.' This cannot be labeled as ignoring. The mother's action explains a great deal; the counselor would have been misled had he accepted without question her first explanation.

Certain cases will require additional insights and, consequently, a departure from the structure outlined above. The parents' spontaneous reports will provide the counselor with the necessary leads. An example from the writer's experience will illustrate the point. A mother, during an initial interview, complained of the behavior of the three children and their disobedience. As she related the incidents, she cast sideward glances at her husband in which the counselor thought he saw resentment. Adroit probing by the counselor established the fact that the mother was resentful of her husband because he did not help with the discipline. The father, it transpired, resented his wife's domination of the family and gave tacit approval of the children's disobedience. He relished especially in their son a defiance he did not dare exhibit. The counselor would not have gained this fundamental insight into the reason for the family problem had he not been alert to the non-verbal communication of the mother.

An interview pattern is useful in establishing rapport with parents and for understanding the purpose of the child's behavior. On the strength of the information gained in the interview, the counselor has insight and deeper understanding of the conflict and a basis for an interview with the child. The skilled counselor uses the outline as a guide, deviating from it when the spontaneous verbal and non-verbal communication of the parents warrants it.

The Elementary School Counseling Process: An Adlerian Model
by Bill Hillman

To Help the Teacher Help the Child Today

Most elementary school teachers are intensely practical people. For the most part they are vitally concerned abut helping the children in their classrooms to grow academically and emotionally. However, many teachers are discouraged because they feel inadequate in their ability to reach some of the children in their charge. When they go to the counselor for help, they want specific suggestions and help in implementing these suggestions. They want the counselor to understand that each teacher and each child is a person with feelings -- a person who is more than a subject that reacts to a mechanical stimulus.

Teachers feel helpless in changing conditions or events that happened in the past and over which they have no control. Their first concern is 'What can I do today to help this child to learn and to become a contributing member of the group?' An Adlerian model of counseling is one way to meet these needs. The following case study illustrates the helping process used by one counselor with an Adlerian orientation.

The Case of Bob Hanson

Mrs. Jones was a good third grade teacher who got along well with children and had a good academic program in a classroom with a good atmosphere. However,

she came to the counselor and complained that eight-year-old Bob Hanson had become impossible. He rarely turned in his assignments without being reminded, and when he did, the work was incomplete, sloppy and many answers were wrong. Bob had also become a behavior problem in class. While Mrs. Jones led a reading group, sometimes Bob led the rest of the class in mischief. When he was asked to sit down he would continue what he was doing until Mrs. Jones left the reading group and made him get back to work. At this point, Mrs. Jones felt angry and felt that her authority was being challenged.

Mrs. Jones said that she had 'tried everything' to make Bob settle down and to work up to his ability. She constantly reminded him to keep working on his assignments. When he misbehaved, she punished him by making him stay in at recess or by making him stand in the hall. 'I've even tried sweet-talking Bob and offering him a special job as a reward for good work,' she said, 'but that does not work either.'

The cumulative record indicated that Bob probably had above average intelligence. Former teachers commented that Bob could do better work 'if he would only try.' They said that he resisted written work and tended to misbehave when he was academically unsuccessful. He was described as a popular leader who was healthy and well co-ordinated.

A Problem In Class But Not On The Playgr und

Bob was observed by the counselor in the classroom and on the playground. In class, Bob seemed to be successful in trapping Mrs. Jones in a power struggle. She seemed to react 'on cue' when Bob would cross her. Lunch was served in the classroom. Bob dawdled and ate more slowly the more he was reminded to hurry. No problems were observed on the playground.

In an interview with the counselor, Mr. and Mrs. Hanson remarked that Bob was different from their other two children. Richard, age 10, was described as being an outstanding student, dependable, responsible, neat and seldom in trouble for misbehavior. He seemed to have an exaggerated need to be right, first and best.

The One Most Likely To Be Punished

Six-year-old Susan was described as being a good student, but a 'spoiled clown.' She had a very special place in the family because she was the 'baby' and the only girl. Bob, on the other hand, was described by his parents as being the good natured mischief-maker of the family. He was the child most likely to be punished after squabbles with his sister or brother. His parents usually spent at least an hour each day trying to force Bob to study his spelling words or to complete unfinished school assignments. They usually called him several times before he would get up in the morning. His mother was continually after him to stop dawdling when dressing, eating, brushing his teeth and getting off to school. He seemed to ignore what was said until mom or dad would get angry with him.

When the Hanson children were seen by the counselor, they wasted no time in identifying Bob as the child in their family who was the 'bad guy.' Richard

seemed pleased with himself as he pointed out that Bob got poor grades. Bob retorted by saying that he could run faster than his older brother. Ever so slyly, Suzie nudged Bob with her foot. He responded immediately by slugging his little sister. This action instantly brought a fatherly reproach from Richard directed toward Bob and brought giggles from Suzie. Bob said that school was fun, especially recess, but that he did not go much for the work that his teachers made him do. When asked, 'Could it be that you stall about doing your school work to show your teacher that she can't make you learn?' he seemed unable to control the broad grin that crept across his face. Bob said that if people would stop 'bugging' him, he would work faster and do what was expected of him.

Rationale For The Counselor's Procedure

The Adlerian counselor usually does not work as well with individuals in isolation. Whenever possible, plans of action for the teacher, the parent and the child are co-ordinated and worked out with the co-operation of all concerned. It is important for the counselor and the client (parent, teacher or child) to have the same goal in counseling (Dinkmeyer, 1964). Most people want to get out of the discouragement trap and willingly accept practical and workable help.

One Small Step At A Time

It is highly unlikely that anyone can successfully work on several problems at the same time, particularly if the problems are quite serious. Therefore, the approach used here will be to work on 'one small and relatively simple' bit of behavior at one time. As the client is successful in one small bit of change he feels more confident to change in other areas that may be more serious. When a parent or teacher understands the purpose of a child's actions and is successful in disengaging from negative interaction, he tends to send more accepting and encouraging signals to the child. The child receives these positive signals and tends to return them to the adult. At this point, the self-concept spiral of the child and the adult are free to move upward, and the child no longer feels that he needs to misbehave to be noticed by significant persons.

A Plan Of Action For The Classroom

Where does the counselor begin to help Mrs. Jones? First, his attitude must convey to her that he recognizes her value as a person and her general adequacy as a professional teacher (Dinkmeyer, 1964). His acceptance of her in spite of her mistakes must be clear enough so that she has 'the courage to be imperfect' (Dinkmeyer & Dreikurs, 1963).

Mutual Respect

If this relationship of mutual trust and respect is present, the teacher and counselor can work together to help Bob. The teacher will need to use this model to establish a relationship of mutual respect between herself and the child.

Interpretation

Secondly, the counselor needs to interpret the data he has collected (Dinkmeyer, 1964). Mrs. Jones may be better 'able' to understand Bob's private way of viewing the world when she understands that he may be the family's 'black hat' squeezed between two very adequate siblings. She may be more understanding when she realizes that he may have given up in school achievement because he feels that he can't keep up with his older brother who has a clear claim to being the better student. She may be able to help Bob when she realizes that the purpose or goal of his misbehavior is to exert his power over others. He has this mistaken or useless goal because he feels unsuccessful on the 'useful side of life' (Dreikurs, 1957; Dreikurs & Soltz, 1964).

Reorientation

Finally, the counselor and the teacher must work out a plan for the child's reorientation. The child is helped to give up his mistaken goals in favor of more accurate self-evaluations (Dinkmeyer, 1964).

In our case study, Mrs. Jones, the teacher, was most concerned about two general problems: Bob's misbehavior and his underachievement. The counselor's first step in the helping process was to aid the teacher in understanding her own actions. It was easy for Mrs. Jones to realize that in a number of areas she was in a power struggle with Bob. She was determined to make him do his school work and to do it correctly. Bob was equally determined to resist this pressure. Mrs. Jones was committed to making Bob stay in his seat during reading groups. Bob was equally committed to wandering around the room and to disturbing others. The more Bob was reminded to do his school work and to hurry with his lunch, the slower he moved. When Mrs. Jones took the responsibility for punishing Bob, he became more resistive and resentful. Bob resisted 'sweet talk' and rewards because he felt that he was being manipulated by 'phony' teacher actions.

Disengagement From The Power Struggle

When Mrs. Jones understood the dynamics of her relationship with Bob, her next question was, 'How can I get out of this power struggle?' The counselor pointed out that it would be necessary for her to disengage from the field of conflict. She would have 'to take her sail out of his wind.' If Bob had no resistance from his teacher, there would be no point in continuing the conflict (Dreikurs, 1964).

An Attack On Dawdling

The counselor and teacher decided to concentrate on one small area of the power struggle. They decided to work on the problem of Bob's incessant dawdling during the lunch period. This part of the problem was selected because it was an area where change could be made relatively quickly and easily. Through this small area of concentration, the teacher and child could gain confidence in their ability to learn one principle in human relations that could be applied to many other kinds of interaction.

The Arena: The Lunchroom

A plan for the lunch hour was developed that allowed for freedom of choice within the limits of order. Limits were established by having the class decide what would be a reasonable time limit for eating lunch. The children were given the freedom to choose how fast and how much they would eat within the time limit. It was assumed that the children were capable of accepting the responsibility for their own choices. It was not the teacher's responsibility to make them eat. If they did not eat, they simply might get hungry before dinner.

Bob's purpose was to resist Mrs. Jones' power of authority when she tried to force him to eat faster by constantly reminding him to hurry. When the teacher did not nag at Bob to eat, he had no reason to be slow.

If Bob should test Mrs. Jones by not eating, the food could be simply removed without comment when the time limit was up. It was not Mrs. Jones' fault if a child was slow. He suffered the logical consequence of his own mischoice. He could eat quickly and finish his lunch or eat slowly and be hungry before dinner. Bob soon learned that eating during lunch time was the best approach. The teacher did not need to be involved in conflict with Bob. The demands of the situation replaced the demands of the teacher. When she was not negatively involved with Bob, she had more time for positive interaction (Dreikurs & Soltz, 1964).

The Demands of The Situation Replace The Demands of The Teacher

When Mrs. Jones was successful in handling the lunchroom problem, she was less discouraged about her ability to successfully help Bob in other areas. She had a more positive attitude toward Bob when she was not nagging at him, and he had a more positive attitude when his teacher was 'off his back.' With the counselor's help, Mrs. Jones was ready to apply in other areas the principle of disengaging from power contests.

Bob rather than Mrs. Jones should be the one to remember that assignments were to be completed. There was no need to force him to work. He could be given a choice between doing his work at the designated time or perhaps on his own time. The choice was his to make. There was no need for conflict between child and teacher about this decision. The counselor could suggest similar choices and logical or natural consequences for other conflict areas. Through this process Bob's attitude toward school and toward himself was improved.

The Encouragement Process

The counselor's next task was to help the teacher learn the encouragement process. The misbehaving child is a discouraged child who is uncertain of his place in the group. The encouragement process helps him to feel that he is adequate and significant enough to belong to the group and to be accepted by it (Dinkmeyer & Dreikurs, 1963).

Mrs. Jones had found that rewards such as special jobs and empty praise had no lasting effect. A reward is only appropriate when the child has done well.

When the reward is not offered, the child feels no urgency to continue his praiseworthy behavior. Encouragement, on the other hand, may be given at the moment of failure and discouragement when it is most needed.

The encouragement process includes the following principles (Dinkmeyer & Dreikures, 1963):

1. Valuing the child and showing faith in him 'as he is.'
2. Developing the child's self-confidence by having confidence in him.
3. Recognizing effort as well as success.
4. Utilizing and integrating the group to enhance the child's development and his sense of belonging.
5. Assuring success by setting short-range goals and individualizing instruction to the learning level of the child.
6. Focusing on the child's strengths and assets.
7. Utilizing the interests of the child.

Accentuate The Positive

The counselor could make suggestions to help Mrs. Jones implement the principles of encouragement. She could mark the number of correct answers on Bob's papers rather than a number of mistakes. She might comment about some positve aspect of an otherwise poor assignment. Her emphasis could be on Bob's 'growth' and improvement rather than how he compared with the 'average' student. Mistakes could be viewed as opportunities for growth rather than evidence of failure (Holt, 1964).

Attention To The Child When He Least Expects It

A very effective method would be to make a conscientious effort to give attention to the child when he least expects it or when he does not demand it. By these methods the child's need for involvement would be met in a positive way and negative involvement would not be as likely to occur.

Further Help For The Teacher

The counselor might wish to supplement his individual teacher-counselor conferences with other services. Mrs. Jones could be included in a teachers' study group. These regular guidance discussion groups might include consideration of specific children such as Bob Hanson, common problem classroom situations, or semi-didactic in-service training in appropriate guidance approaches.

A Plan Of Action For The Home

In their interview with the counselor, Mr. and Mrs. Hanson asked for suggestions for handling Bob. They expressed their concern about Bob at home and described his typical behavior in the family interaction. The parents as well as the teacher were involved in a power struggle with Bob over his dawdling and lack of achievement. Because Mrs. Jones was working on the dawdling problem at

school, the counselor and parents decided to develop a plan for correcting Bob's dawdling in the morning before school.

Put The Children On Their Own

The counselor's first recommendation to the parents was to put Bob and the other children on their own in the morning. The father's responsibility was to call the children 'once' to get up. The mother's responsiblity was to fix breakfast. The children's responsibility was to get up, find their own clothes, dress, eat, brush their teeth, do any regular chores assigned to them and get off to school 'on their own without being reminded.' By placing the children on their own the parents could demonstrate their faith and confidence in the children. The children could choose to be fast of slow about their responsibilities. The children were also given credit for being quite capable of accepting the consequences for poor choices. If Bob were too slow about getting up and getting off to school, he might be late and would have to face the consequences at school. If Bob were inappropriately slow about eating, the food could be removed without comment. No eating would be allowed until the next meal. If Bob were late to breakfast because he dressed slowly, breakfast might be over and the table cleared before he arrived.

No Longer Anything To Resist

When his parents were not forcing Bob or exerting their power over him, he had no real reason to resist. Bob was happier and felt better about himself because his mother was not nagging him. Mrs. Hanson felt better because she did not have to expend so much energy to force him. The self-concerns of both children and parents were enhanced.

In later interviews, the counselor could help the Hansons apply the principles of affective parent-child interaction in other situations. Bob could be given responsibility for studying without being reminded. He could also accept the responsibility for mis-choice. The children could be given the chance to work out their own squabbles without the parents being drawn into the conflict. In this way, Bob's position of being the family 'black hat' could be relieved. Suggestions for implementing encouragement could also be given.

Further Help For The Parents

To follow up on individual parent consultation sessions, the counselor might wish to include the Hansons in other programs for parents. They might be invited to participate in a parent consultation group. This program would emphasize group counseling with parents concerning specific problem situations at home that might adversely affect school progress. Another possibility would be to include the Hansons in a parent study group. This program would emphasize parent education rather than counseling. Study-discussion groups are set up on a short-term basis (10 weeks) to examine child training techniques that are appropriate to our changing culture. Books, printed materials, and films are used to stimulate discussion and learning. The Hansons might profit from a third program: The Parent-Teacher Education Center (Dreikurs, et al., 1959).

This program is a family counseling demonstration approach to training parents and teachers to work more effectively with 'normal' children.

A Plan Of Action For The Child

The primary responsibility for change rests with the significant adults in a child's life. Children tend to change their behavior in response to the change they observe in the adults around them. However, direct counseling or guidance with the child may also be profitable. The Adlerian counselor's approach is to help the child understand the purpose of his behavior and to help him reorient his mistaken concepts and beliefs about himself in favor of more accurate self-evaluations (Dinkmeyer, 1964). The counselor might work individually with elementary school age children, but group procedures seem to be the most effective method.

Child Group Counseling

The counselor might wish to work with the Hanson children as a group to help them work out better methods of getting along together. Later the children in one or two other families could join the Hanson children for multiple sibling group counseling. By this method, children in one family can give suggestions for resolving conflict to the children in another family.

Possibly, Bob could be included in a counseling group with other children who have underachievement or behavior problems (Dreikurs, 1960). One effective way to organize such a group would be to allow the children to participate in the choice of group members.

Classroom group discussions conducted weekly in Bob's third grade class might be effective in helping Bob to correct his tendency to be a classroom mischief-maker (Grunwald, 1960; Spiel, 1962). These discussions might be led by the counselor, the teacher, or by a counselor-teacher team. After a model has been established, the children might be able to lead their own discussion hour.

Summary

Elementary school counseling based on an Adlerian model is an effective way to meet the needs of teachers and parents who are seeking practical ways to help children in their development. Because the Adlerian counselor has a frame of reference from which to work, he can co-ordinate programs for the child's growth at school and at home.

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MISCELLANEOUS

But Punishment Works! - Vicki Soltz

'Punishment works for me,' declared a mother. 'So, what's wrong with it? I slapped Johnny's hand often enough and he finally stopped picking his nose.'

It is true that many times punishment does seem to work. So let us examine this situation more closely. To begin with, we should figure out what we mean when we say 'it works.' We mean that the child has stopped the behavior for which he was punished. But, for how long did he stop? Mother admitted that she slapped her son's hands quite often. One slap didn't work for long, so she had to do it time and again. When he finally stopped picking his nose, she thought it was because he didn't like being slapped for it. This may look like a good reason; but the interaction between mother and son gives a different picture. So let us look, then, at the interaction and what it means.

Johnny picks his nose. This gets Mother's goat. She slaps. Let us apply the rule that we can usually tell what a child hopes to gain by his action if we look at Mother's response. Now we can see that Johnny wanted to get a rise out of Mother. His act is in defiance of her command. She says, 'Don't pick your nose.' His behavior says, 'I will.' Therefore, we can see a power contest in which the child scores several times for each victory gained by Mother. Johnny has gained his point. He has continued to do the forbidden. And Mother's violent reaction is only a declaration of her bankruptcy. Quite a game: True, Johnny had to pay the price of a slap; but he is quite willing to do so. He has shown Mother that he *will* when she says he *won't*. If this is true, why did Johnny stop his disagreeable behavior? Because he was slapped? Because he lost the battle? Hardly. He stopped because the issue no longer interested him. He got bored with it. Chances are he has found another way to show his power.

Punishment does not fit into a democratic setting. The right to punish belongs to a superior power who decides what another shall or shall not do. Since children have gained the right to decide for themselves what they will do; they have become our equals. While we cannot force the child's decisions, we still may be able to influence them.

If Mother would promote a situation where Johnny gained nothing by his act, she might *influence* him to stop. She cannot achieve this with a futile show of power. But she can stimulate him to reconsider. To do so, she can accept Johnny's decision to pick his nose, and decide what *she* will do (not what she will make Johnny do). She can quietly say, 'I don't like to touch your fingers when they have been in your nose,' and refuse to touch his hands or let him touch her. Now Johnny has little to gain by picking his nose and much to gain by stopping. Of course Mother must remain friendly in all other aspects. She may pat him on the head, kiss him on the back of the neck, or continue any other form of affection that avoids the hands. After his bath at night she can tell him, 'Your hands are clean now, how about a hug?' Such a course will be much more effective and take less time.

It may seem strange at first to consider that a child is willing to accept pain in order to gain something. However, observation has shown that children will bear anything to gain their hidden goals. If we hope to train our children for the democratic way of life, for a life of satisfaction in participation and usefulness, we must learn to use the democratic techniques which will guide them to become situation-centered, rather than self-centered.

Why Not Praise? - Vicki Soltz

Most of us have grown up believing that praise is desperately needed by all children in order to stimulate them into 'right' behavior. If we watch a child closely when he is receiving praise we may discover some astonishing facts. Some children gloat, some panic, some express 'so what,' some seem to say, 'Well, finally!'

We are suddenly confronted with the fact that we need to see *how the child interprets what is going on* rather than assume that he regards everything as we do.

Examination of the intention of the praiser shows that he is offering a reward. 'If you are good you will have the reward of being high in my esteem.' Well, fine. What is wrong with this approach? Why not help the child learn to do the right thing by earning a high place in parental esteem?

If we look at the situation from the child's point of view, we will find the mistake of this approach.

How does praise affect the child's self-image? He may get the impression that his personal worth depends upon how he 'measures up' to the demands and values of others. 'If I am praised, my personal worth is high. If I am scolded, I am worthless.' When this child becomes an adult, his effectiveness, his ability to function, his capacity to cope with life's tasks will depend entirely upon his estimation of how he stands in the opinion of others. He will live constantly on an elevator -- up and down.

Praise is apt to center the attention of the child upon himself. 'How do I measure up?' rather than 'What does this situation need?' This gives rise to a fictive-goal of 'self-being-praised' instead of the reality-goal of 'what-can-I-do-to-help.'

Another child may come to see praise as his right -- as rightfully due him from life. Therefore, life is unfair if he doesn't receive praise for every effort. 'Poor me -- no one appreciates me.' Or, he may feel he has no obligation to perform if no praise is forthcoming. 'What's in it for me? What will I get out of it? If no praise (reward) is forthcoming, why should I bother?'

Praise can be terribly discouraging. If the child's effort fails to bring the expected praise he may assume either that he isn't good enough or that what he has to offer isn't worth the effort and so gives up.

If a child has set exceedingly high standards for himself, praise may sound like mockery or scorn, especially when his efforts fail to measure up to his own standards. In such a child, praise only serves to increase his anger with himself and his resentment at others for not understanding his dilemma.

In all our efforts to encourage children we must be alert to the child's response. The accent must move from 'What am *I*?' (good?) to 'How can I help in the total situation?' Anything we do which reinforces a child's false image of himself is discouraging. Whatever we do that helps a child to see that he is part of a functioning unit, that he can contribute, co-operate, participate within the total situation, is encouragement. We must learn to see that *as he is*, the child is good enough.

Praise rewards the *individual* and tends to fasten his attention upon himself. Little satisfaction of self-fulfillment comes from this direction.

Encouragement stimulates the *effort* and fastens attention upon one's capacity to join humanity and to become aware of interior strength and native capacity to cope.

Praise recognizes the actor, encouragement acknowledges the act.

Praise	*Encouragement*
Aren't you wonderful to be able to do this!	Isn't it nice that you can help?
	We appreciate your help. Don't the dishes shine? (after wiping) Isn't the carpet pretty now? (after vacuuming)
	How nice your room looks!
	Thanks for watching the baby. It was a big help.
	I like your drawing. The colors are so pretty together.
	How much neater the room looks now that your toys are put away.
	How nice that you could figure that out for yourself. Your skill is growing!
I'm so proud of you for getting good grades. (You are high in my esteem.)	I'm so glad you enjoy learning (according to your own resources).

I'm proud of you for behaving so nicely in the restaurant.

I'm awfully proud of your performance in the recital.

We all enjoyed being together in the restaurant.

It is good to see that you enjoy playing. We all appreciate the job you did. I have to give you credit for working hard.

The Courage To Be Imperfect - Rudolph Dreikurs

I have chosen today only one aspect of psychological importance to present to you for your thought and consideration; the subject of 'The Courage to be Imperfect.' In this one subject and topic it seems that a number of basic problems facing us come to the fore. In this subject and topic we deal with our culture; we deal with the need for a reorientation in a changing culture; we deal with the basic problems of education; and, finally, we have here an area where we may even learn eventually to deal more effectively with ourselves.

We can well see that perfectionism is rampant today. A great many people try so hard to do right and to be right. Only a few psychiatrists are perhaps catching on to the implications of such a desire which has highly depreciated our fellow man, our society. So it may perhaps be presumptuous to ask what right do we have to interfere with the peoples' desire to be right and to do right and to become perfect. In a certain way we may even consider the term and the notion of God as the ideal of perfection. The question of justice is intrinsically linked to the demand to have the right -- the right distinquished from wrong -- punishing for the wrong and perhaps praising the right. Moral standards are impossible without a clear distinction between right and wrong, and stimulating efforts toward the right.

Let us perhaps first state the one thing; right and wrong are judgments. In many cases they are valueless judgments. The right and wrong can be clearly defined only when we have absolutes -- only in an absolutistic way can we say 'that is right' and 'this is wrong.' And there are many people who out of the tradition of our culture are still looking for this absolute. Truth is an absolute; something is either wrong or right, true or false. That is how we think. And perhaps that is the way we have to act.

What we don't realize so often is that all of these absolutes are gone in a civilization which has become democratic. Absolutes are only possible if we have an authority which decides what is right and wrong. As far as we are concerned in our private lives we have become such an authority because each one of us determines for himself what is right and what is wrong; what is true and what is false. But when it comes to a generalized statement, then we run into troubles. What is right for the one may be wrong for the other one. What is good for one, what is beautiful for one, may be not so for another one. And as we are losing the authoritarian order in our society

we lose more and more the authorities which establish absolute judgments. The entire world where even science has to make this adjustment -- mechanistic scie[illegible] in the 17th and 18th centuries was still under the impression that one can easily distinguish between true and false; the truth must be found, despite the warning of philosophers like Kant that the real thing can't be seen, that everything is approximation.

So we find today that right and wrong are also approximations. We can only come closer to the right and see clearer something which is not so right. But the absolute right does no longer exist. The same way as we can never again dream about finding the absolute truth. Every truth is approximate, for the time being; until a better truth is found.

I have found many, many people who try so hard to be good. But I have failed yet to see that they have done so for the welfare of others. What I find behind these people who try to be so good is a concern with their own prestige. They are good for the benefit of their own self-elevation. Anybody who is really concerned with the welfare of others won't have any time or interest to become concerned with the question of how good he is.

To explain a little bit further I might perhaps present to you two ways of movement on the social scene; two ways of working, of applying oneself. We can distinguish them as the horizontal plane and the vertical plane. What do I mean by that? Some people entirely and others in certain areas move on the horizontal plane. That means that whatever they do they move toward others; they want to do something for others, they are interested in others -- they merely function. That is clearly distinguishable from another motivation by which people move on the vertical plane. Whatever they are doing, they are doing it because they want to be higher, they want to be better.

As a matter of fact, improvement and contributions, can be done in either way: there are people who do something well because they enjoy doing it; and others who can do something well because they are so glad to prove how good they are. Even human progress probably depends just as well on the contributions of those who move on the horizontal and on the vertical plane. Many have done tremendous benefit to mankind actually motivated only by the question of proving how good they are -- looking for their own superiority. And others have done a great deal of good -- as we call it, in an unselfish way -- without consideration of what they may get out of it.

And yet there is a fundamental difference in the way things are accomplished, whether you move on the horizontal or the vertical plane. When you move on the vertical plane you go up; you increase your knowledge, you increase your status, your respect, your prestige -- perhaps even your money. But at the same time nobody who moves on the vertical plane is never only moving up. He is constantly moving up and down, up and down. One day when he does something good he moves a few notches up; next moment when he makes some mistake he moves back down again. Up and down, up and down. That is exactly the plane on which most of our contemporaries move today. The consequences are obvious. A person who moves on the vertical plane can never be sure that he is high enough, never be sure the next morning that he is not coming down again. Therefore he has to live with tension and fears and anxieties. He is constantly vulnerable. As soon as something doesn't go well, down he goes -- if not in the opinion of others, then in his own.

Quite different is the movement on the horizontal plane. The person who moves on the horizontal plane is constantly moving ahead in the direction he wants to move. He doesn't move up but he moves ahead. When something goes wrong, he considers what's going on, tries to find a way around, tries to remedy it. He is merely motivated by interest. If his motivation is very strong, he may even have enthusiasm. But he doesn't think about his own self-elevation; he is interested in functioning instead of being concerned with his status or prestige.

And so we can see how on the one side, on the horizontal plane we have the desire to be useful. On the vertical plane we have the desire for self-elevation with the constant fear of making mistakes. And yet, most people today, stimulated by our general social values of social competition, are entirely devoting themselves to the problem of their own value with self-elevation -- never sure that they are good enough, never quite sure that they will measure up; even though in the eyes of their fellow man they may be highly successful.

Now that points us, then, to a crucial question for those who are so concerned with self-elevation. The crucial question is the problem of mistakes -- making mistakes.

Perhaps we first have to state a little bit clearer why people became concerned -- badly concerned -- with the danger of making a mistake. We can perhaps refer first to our tradition, to our cultural tradition. In an autocratic society, making a mistake is unpardonable, intolerable. The king, the master, never makes a mistake because he has the right to do as he darn well pleases.

And there is nobody who can tell him he has done something wrong except at the danger of losing his head. Mistakes are only possible to be made by subordinates. The only one who decides whether a mistake is made is the boss.

Making a mistake means thereby nonconformity with the demands: 'As long as you do as I tell you there is no mistake possible because I am right. I say so. Making a mistake therefore means that you don't do what I tell you. And I won't stand for that. If you dare to do something wrong -- that means different from what I tell you -- you can count on the worst possible punishment. And in case you have any delusion that I might not be able to punish you, there will be somebody higher than me who will see to it that you will be punished. A mistake is a deadly sin. Making a mistake incurs the worst possible fate.' That is a typical and necessary authoritarian concept of co-operation: Co-operation means doing as I tell you.

It seems to me that our fear of making a mistake has a different meaning. It is an expression of our highly competitive way of living. Making a mistake becomes so dangerous not because of the punishment -- of which we don't think -- but because of the lowering of our status, of the ridicule, of the humiliation, which it may incur: 'If I do something wrong and you find that I am doing something wrong, then I am no good. And if I am no good, then I have no respect, I have no status. Then you might be better than me.' Horrible thought!

'I want to be better than you because I want to be superior.' But in our present era we haven't so many other signs of superiority. How the white man no longer can be so proud of his superiority because he is white; and the man

because he is a man and looks down on the woman -- we can't let him do that anymore. And even the superiority of money is another question because we can lose it. The Great Depression has shown it to us.

There is only one area where we can still feel safely superior: When we are right. It is a new snobbishism of intellectuals: 'I know more, therefore you are stupid and I am superior to you.' The superiority of the moralists: 'I am better than you; therefore I am superior to you.' And it is in this competitive drive to accomplish a moral and intellectual superiority that making a mistake becomes so dangerous again: 'If you find out that I am wrong, how can I look down on you? And if I can't look down at you, you certainly can look down at me.'

That is how human relations of today are -- in our community just as much as in our families; where brothers and sisters, husbands and wives, parents and children look down on each other for doing wrong and each one trying to prove so desperately that he is right and the other is wrong. Except, those who don't care any more can tell you, 'You are right, you think, but I have the power to punish you; I will do what I want, and you can't stop me.' But of course, while we feel defeated by a little child who is our boss and who does what he pleases, we still have one thing left: At least we know we are right and he is wrong.

When you try to be cautious, when you use your judgment, you are not thinking about 'I shouldn't make this mistake'; you are merely trying to do what the situation would warrant. But anybody who is fascinated by the possibility of making a mistake is not liable to make one. Preoccupation with the danger of making a mistake leads you smack into it. The best way of avoiding a mistake is doing your part and don't think about the possibilities of making mistakes.

Actually, all these people who try so desperately to avoid mistakes are endangering themselves. The reason for that is two-fold. First, when you think about the mistake which you might make, you do to yourself the greatest of harm by discouraging yourself. We know that discouragement is the best motivation for doing something wrong. In order to do something right, one has to have confidence -- self-confidence. When you think about the mistake you might make you express your lack of faith in yourself, your lack of confidence in yourself. And, consequently, out of this discouragement we are more prone to make a mistake.

But there is another psychological mechanism that makes concern with mistakes so dangerous. We know today that everybody moves in accordance with his expectations. When you expect to do something, are really convinced you will do it, you are more strong to do it. You may not always do it because there may be other factors involved. But, as far as you are concerned, when you expect to behave in a certain way, you are most prone to behave in this way.

I don't know how many of you have had the experience when you learn to ride a bicycle or to ski. I learned both and I had the experience in both. The first time I am along on a bicycle in the middle of a street, completely empty except for one thing which stands there in the middle; it is much more difficult to hit the one thing instead of going around left or right, but you will hit it. Because you expect to hit it. The same way when you are on skis and there is a tree there. Why should you just hit this one tree? But you do, the first time you are on skis, because that is what you expect from yourself in what you

are doing. We are moving ourselves in line with what we anticipate and it is therefore anticipating the danger of mistake that makes us more vulnerable.

The mistake presents you with a predicament. But if you are not discouraged, if you are willing and able to take and utilize your inner resources, the predicament is only stimulating you to better and more successful efforts. There is no sense in crying over spilled milk.

But most people who make mistakes feel guilty; they feel degraded, they lose respect for themselves, they lose belief in their own ability. And I have seen it time and again: the real damage was not done through the mistakes they made but through the guilt feeling, discouragement, which they had afterwards. Then they really messed it up for themselves. As long as we are so preoccupied with the fallacious assumption of the importance of mistakes, we can't take mistakes in our stride.

Now let's see what consequence these facts have on education and on living with oneself. It is my contention that our education today is very largely what I call *mistake-centered*. If you could enumerate the various actions of a teacher in a class and could enumerate for every hour and every day what she is doing with the children, you would be surprised how many of her actions are directly dealing with mistakes which children have made. As if we were obliged to primarily correct or prevent mistakes.

I fear that in the majority of tests given to students the final mark does not depend on how many brilliant things he said and did, but how many mistakes he made. And if he made a mistake he can't get a hundred regardless of how much he has contributed on other parts of the examination. Mistakes determine the value. In this way we unwittingly add to the already tremendous discouragement of our children.

It seems to me that our children are exposed to a sequence of discouraging experiences, both at home and at school. Everybody points out what they did do wrong and what they could do wrong. We deprive the children of the only experience which really can promote growth and development: experience of their own strengths. We impress them with their deficiencies, with their smallness, with their limitations; and at the same time try to drive them on to be much more than they can be. If what we want to institute in children is the need to accomplish something, a faith in themselves, and regard for their own strengths; then we have to minimize the mistakes they are making and emphasize all the good things, not which they could do, but which they *do* do.

A teacher who is defeated by a child who is exceedingly ingenious in defeating her would not think of giving the child credit for the ingenuity and brains which he uses in defeating her. But that's exactly the only thing which might get the child to stop defeating her: If he could get some appreciation for what he is doing instead of being told, 'You can't do it to me,' when the teacher knows as well as the child that he can. But for every one child who really studies and grows and learns and applies himself, driven by this fear of 'You are not good enough, not what you ought to be. You have to try so hard' -- for every one of these children who succeeds, there are literally thousands who give up: 'I can't be as good as Ma and Teacher want me to be. What's the sense of trying. I can't be as good and important as I want to be. I have to find other ways -- and to switch to the useless side.'

Most of our juvenile delinquents are the product of a perverted ambition instilled in them by well-meaning parents and teachers telling them how good they ought to be. Only that they preferred to be good in easier ways than by studying and applying themselves. If they smoke, drive hotrods, indulge in sex, get in conflict with the police, break windows and whatever have you; then they are heroic, then they are important. It's easier and much more gratifying because they really feel important -- and, by golly -- our fear gives them all the reason to feel important because they defeat us, society collectively, as they defeat their teachers and parents. And they are all over-ambitious, driven by their ideal of how important they ought to be and finding no other outlet except on the useless side, by misbehaving.

And so this mistaken idea of the importance of mistakes leads us to a mistaken concept of ourselves. We become overly impressed by everything that's wrong in us and around us. Because, if I am critical of myself, I naturally am going to be critical of the people around me. If I am sure that I am no good, I have at least to find that you are worse. That is what we are doing. Anyone who is critical of himself is always critical of others.

And so we have to learn to make peace with ourselves as we are. Not, the way many say, 'What are we after all? We are a speck on the sand on the beaches of life, we are limited in time and space. We are so small and insignificant. How short is our life, how small and insignificant is our existence. How can we believe in our strength, in our power?'

When you stand before a huge waterfall, or see a huge snow-capped mountain, or are in a thunderstorm -- most people are inclined to feel weak and awed, confronted with this majesty and power of nature. And very few people draw the only conclusion which in my mind would be correct: the realization that all of this power of the waterfall, this majesty of the mountain, this tremendous impressiveness of the thunderstorm are part of the same life which is in me. Very few people who stand in awe of this expression of nature stand in awe before themselves, admiring this tremendous organization of their body, their glands, their physiology, this tremendous power of their brain. This self-realization of what we are missing because we are only slowly emerging from a traditional power of autocracy where the masses don't count and only the brains and only the emperor and the divine authority knew what was good for the people. We haven't freed ourselves yet from the slave mentality of an autocratic past.

How many things would be different in everyone's surroundings if we hadn't lived? How a good word may have encouraged some fellow and did something to him that he did it differently and better than he would have otherwise. And through him somebody else was saved. How much we contribute to each other, how powerful we each are -- and don't know it. And that is the reason then why we can't be satisfied with ourselves and look to elevate ourselves -- afraid of the mistakes which would ruin us -- and try desperately to gain the superiority over others. *So perfection, therefore, is by no means a necessity; it is even impossible.*

There are people who are always so afraid of doing wrong because they don't see their value; remain eternal students because only in school one can tell them what is right, and they know how to get good grades. But in life you can't do that. All the people who are afraid of making mistakes, who want by all

means to be right, can't function well. But there is only one condition on which you can be sure you are right when you try to do something to do right. There is one condition alone which would permit you to be relatively sure whether you are right or wrong. That is *afterwards*. When you do something you never can be sure -- you can only see if it is right by how it turns out. Anybody who has to be right can't move much, can't make any decision, because we can never be sure that we are right. To be right is a false premise and it usually leads to the misuse of this right. Have you any idea of the difference between logical right and psychological right? Have you any idea how many people are torturing their friends and their families because they have to be right -- and unfortunately they are? There is nothing worse than the person who always has the right argument. There is nothing worse than a person who always is right morally. And he shows it.

We are dealing in America with a horrible danger to which we have to call attention. Do you know that our American women are becoming a general, universal threat? Merely because they try so hard to be right? Go into any average classroom and look at all these bright, intelligent students -- who are girls. And all the toughs who don't want to come to school and don't want to study. Look at all these mothers who try so desperately to be good -- and their husbands and their children don't have any chance.

This right morally and right logically is very often an offense to human relationships. In order to be right you sacrifice kindness, patience if you want, tolerance. No, out of this desire for rightness we don't get peace, we don't get co-operation; we merely end up by trying to give the others the idea of how good we are when we can't even fool ourselves. No, to be human does not mean to be right, does not mean to be perfect. To be human means to be useful, to make contributions, not for oneself, but others. To take what there is and make the best out of it. It requires faith in oneself and faith and respect for others. But that has a prerequisite: that we can't be overly concerned with their shortcomings, because if we are impressed and concerned with their shortcomings, we have no respect, neither for ourselves nor for others.

We have to learn the art, and to realize that we are good enough as we are -- because we never will be better, regardless of how much more we may know, how much more skill we may acquire, how much status or money or what-have-you. If we can't make peace with ourselves as we are, we never will be able to make peace with ourselves. And this requires the courage to be imperfect; requires the realization that I am no angel, that I am not superhuman, that I make mistakes, that I have faults; but I am pretty good because I don't *have* to be better than others. Which is a tremendous belief. If you accept just being yourself, the devil of vanity, the golden calf of my superiority vanish. If we learn to function, to do our best regardless of what it is; out of the enjoyment of the functioning we can grow just as well, even better than if we would drive ourselves to be perfect -- which we can't be.

We have to learn to live with ourselves and the relationship of natural limitations and the full awareness of our own strengths.